ONTARIO
TEACHERS' MANUALS

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

AUTHORIZED BY
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION

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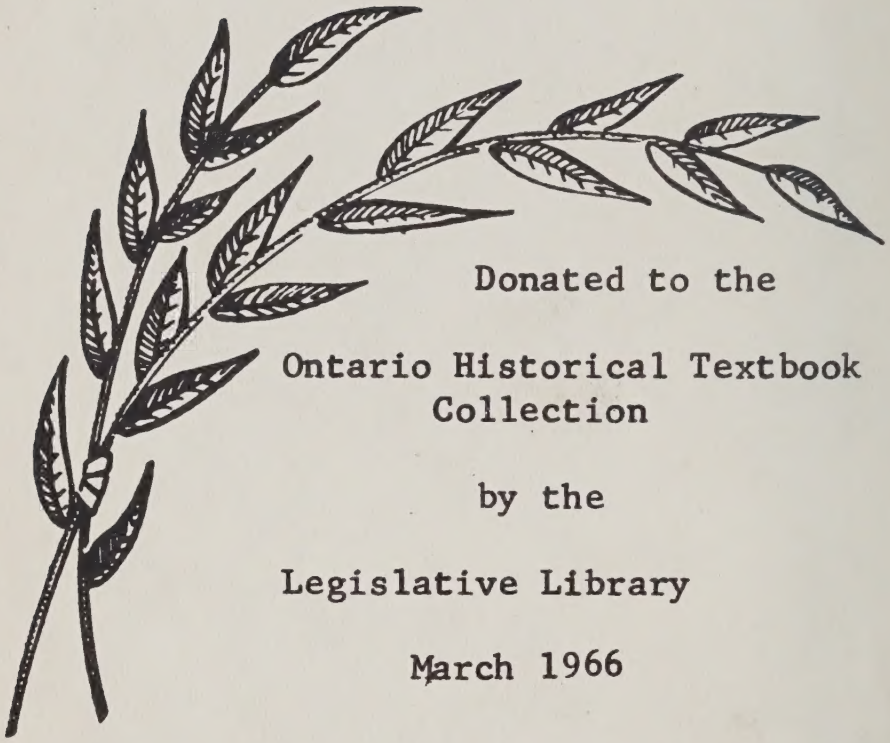
TORONTO
THE RYERSON PRESS



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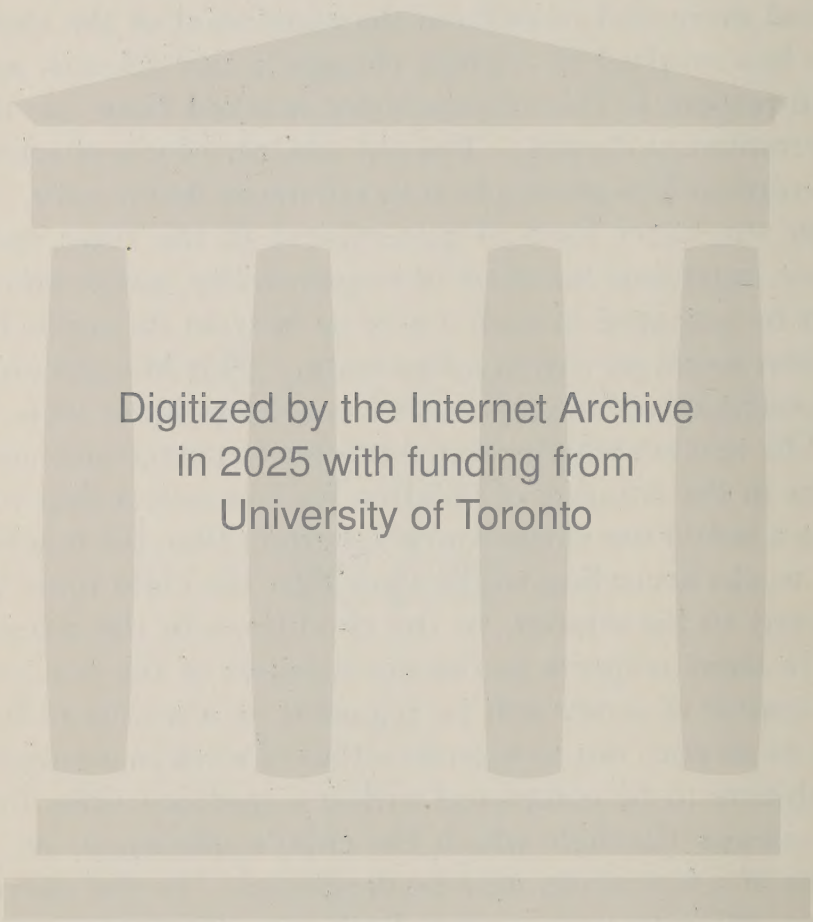
PREFACE

For some years the education of children has been considered more and more from the standpoint of the child. This has resulted in a great change in our schools, and in no respect is this change more marked than in the government of classes. The old arbitrary form of school government has given place to one more democratic. As under the latter form of government in the state, each citizen must bear his share of responsibility, so the school must be managed in such a way as to train its pupils for efficient social service in a free state. This Manual aims to present school management from this point of view.

The teacher who looks upon school management as a factor in the training of children for free citizenship will make a better use of the courses of study than the teacher who works according to the view that the child must be adapted to his studies, to the conditions in the school, and in some respects to the peculiarities of the teacher. The course of study will be regarded as a means rather than as an end; not as a prescription of work in a variety of subjects to be completed within a specified time, but as a means through which the child's efficiency, as a citizen of a free state, may be developed. In the efforts to give effect to such a view, both the organization and the management of the school will be greatly influenced. It is from this point of view that the topics presented in this book should be studied, and it is now offered to teachers-in-training and to teachers in service, in the hope that it may aid them to become more efficient in the work of preparing their pupils for useful citizenship.



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SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

CHAPTER I

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT is the art of organizing and governing the school. Good management is based upon principles which have been derived from a study of children in relation to a social order for which they are to be properly fitted.

ORGANIZATION AND GOVERNMENT

Organization is the first step in school management; it involves a knowledge of means and of ends, and of the manner in which the means should be used to accomplish the end desired. Between it and the desired end there must intervene a complex process, called government, by means of which continuous progress is made towards the ideal as it is conceived in the mind of the teacher. This process, in its successive stages, demands wise direction and control by the teacher, in order that the direct course towards the end may be constantly maintained.

The organizing of a school includes such duties as arranging the equipment, seating the pupils, classifying them, planning the daily programme, assigning definite duties to the pupils, making provision for a record of their attendance and work, and giving them instructions of a general nature.

In the government of the school favourable conditions for health and work must be maintained, time and energy economized, the pupils' interest secured and retained, good habits formed, and progress made towards accomplishing the end for which the school is organized.

AIM OF THE SCHOOL

What is the end to be attained by means of the school? Many aims have been set up in the past. Among these are the bread-and-butter aim, knowledge, culture, complete living, harmonious development of all the powers, and morality. Gradually these have been replaced by the broader aim, which includes all the others, namely, efficiency of the pupils as members of the school society, and, later, as members of the larger community of citizens, known as the state.

To be an efficient member of society involves three things: first, the individual must be sufficiently skilful to preserve himself in life and health, and to maintain his own interests; secondly, he must not interfere with the work of others, either directly, by injuring their work in order to gain some personal advantage, or indirectly, by incompetency, as a result of which others have to neglect their regular work in order to assist him; thirdly, he must be of assistance to his fellows, both in doing their regular work, and in bearing his share of responsibility in the government of the society of which he is a member. In its highest development, this last requirement culminates in the complete sacrifice of selfish interests for the sake of society—a sacrifice which is a foundation principle of Christianity.

No one should be satisfied with anything less than complete efficiency. Unfortunately, however, it is not possible to secure this under present limitations. Lack of equipment, unsanitary conditions, irregular attendance, unfavourable home life, and inperfect knowledge of the mental development and outlook of the child, are some of the causes which retard progress towards greater efficiency.

With this ultimate aim clearly in view, the teacher may, in some measure, judge to what degree each day's activity

brings the pupils nearer the educational goal. He will ask himself: "How does corporal punishment influence the progress of my pupils towards this goal of efficient social service? How do written examinations affect their progress? How do the children's games promote their progress? How can I improve my method of teaching in order to facilitate progress?" A teacher should be able eventually to classify all the school experiences and activities as either helps or hindrances to progress towards the end in view.

It is frequently stated that this is an age of organization, and that individuality is being crushed out by it. The fact is that this is an age of complex conditions, and, therefore, a complex organization is necessary in order to develop the individuals that constitute modern society. There can be little development of individuality without organization. Naturally, as complexity of organization increases, the government of its activities likewise becomes a more difficult problem. This is true of the school, as well as of the state. When we consider that the school is a workshop, a study, and a living room combined, the magnitude of the problem of school management may be more perfectly realized.

CO-OPERATION OF EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

In the light of the aim stated above, the school must be viewed as a society. The members of the school society are the teacher, the pupils, the parents, and the trustees, each of these having special duties to perform in relation to the others—these duties being fairly well settled by custom, or defined by Statutes and the Regulations of the Department of Education.

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The school is part of an educational organization, which begins with a department of the Provincial Government, called the Department of Education. At its head is a Cabinet Minister, who has the responsibility of planning the system from the kindergarten to the training schools. The Minister represents in the Cabinet the educational interests of the Province. In this capacity he estimates the amount of money which, in his opinion, the Provincial Government should devote annually to education. He also introduces legislation on educational matters, and, from time to time, issues regulations regarding the details of educational administration.

The Department of Education co-operates with the county councils, the city and town councils, and the township councils, in providing money for the support of the schools. The municipalities, represented by the various councils mentioned, raise most of the money. Thus, in 1913, the Legislative grants for the elementary and secondary schools were $1,093,722, while the municipal grants and assessments were $12,469,165. The proportionate distribution of the Legislative grants depends largely upon the reports of inspectors as to the efficiency of the respective schools.

TRUSTEES

The direct control of the schools is placed in the hands of boards of trustees, elected by the ratepayers. These boards vary in size from three members in rural school sections to ten or more in cities. They engage the teachers, and look to them to organize the schools in such a way as to meet the particular needs of the pupils, and to comply with the Regulations of the Department of Education.

THE INSPECTOR

In order that the Department of Education and the municipal councils, or boards of trustees—the bodies that provide the funds for carrying on this system—may be satisfied that an adequate service is being secured for the expenditure of their money, inspectors are appointed. Subject to the approval of the Minister of Education, the appointments are made in the counties by the county councils, and in the cities by the boards of trustees or boards of education; in the unorganized districts they are made by the Minister himself. The Minister also appoints Provincial inspectors for certain classes of schools and for certain departments of school work. The inspectors must, from time to time, visit the schools that are under their jurisdiction and report upon their efficiency.

THE TEACHER

Before taking charge of a school, a teacher must be duly qualified, as required by the Statutes and the Regulations of the Department of Education. In his teaching he must follow the Course of Study prescribed by the Department for schools of the grade in which he is employed, and, at the same time, he must satisfy the trustees by whom he is employed and the parents whose children he instructs. In brief, what the teacher must know as a minimum of attainments, and what he must aim to do, are determined by the Minister of Education; his appointment and salary, and many details of his work are determined by the trustees.

In such an extensive and complex organization the teacher plays a very important part; it is he who makes the whole organization effective. In a very real sense the success of the system depends upon the success of the indi-

vidual teachers, since, upon the manner in which they exemplify the system in the actual work of teaching, largely depends the attitude of the public towards the schools.

AIM OF ORGANIZATION

In school organization it is important to keep in mind that social activity in the school is a valuable training for efficient social activity in real life. Hence the school must be so organized, and all its interests so managed, as to provide for social activity among its members. Each individual of the school society—teacher, pupil, parent, trustee—should bear his share of responsibility. It is the chief duty of the teacher to see that each member of the school society performs his work efficiently, and does not interfere with the work of the others. The reader should keep this principle in mind as he studies the chapters that follow.

When the teacher begins to organize the school, he has to consider what those in authority have planned for him to do and the needs of the children placed in his charge. These have to be provided for in accordance with the standards set up by the Department of Education. These standards determine the grade in which the child may be placed—Form I, II, III, IV, or V. It is the teacher's duty to organize the school in accordance with the standards prescribed, basing his judgment in part, at least, upon the results of oral and written examinations.

SCOPE OF ORGANIZATION

Unless a teacher takes charge of a school which is entirely unorganized—a condition not often found in older Ontario—he has to consider not only the previous

organization, which may be continued, wholly, or in part, but also how to relate the unorganized elements to the organization already existing. Unfortunately, there is seldom a good record of the previous organization, because teachers do not seem to realize the value of making and preserving school records. Every teacher should adopt some method of recording the classification and work of a school, which will enable his successor to know what has been done. A uniform Provincial system of keeping records in our schools would facilitate the work of teachers in classifying pupils, especially in the case of those who come from other schools. If the secretary of the board of trustees would make a point of securing from a retiring teacher all the necessary information regarding the classification, in order to hand it to the incoming teacher, much confusion would be avoided. It should be the duty of the retiring teacher to see that this information is in the hands of the secretary.

School Organization, then, has to deal with the pupils already organized into classes, with the classifying of new pupils from other schools or just entering school for the first time from their homes, with arranging work for the classes into which pupils have been placed, and with other details necessary for the progress and welfare of the pupils. It has in view the systematic co-operation of the teacher, the pupils, the parents, and the trustees, in carrying on the work of the school. This organization must be effected in accordance with the Statutes of the Legislature and the Regulations of the Department of Education, which outline the powers and duties of each of these units. The actual organization of a school should be completed within the first week of the school year.

CLASSIFICATION

An important consideration in school management is the classification of the pupils; that is, the grouping of them into classes according to their ability to do the work of the school. In such grouping, the end in view—preparation for social efficiency—must be kept in mind. Mere ability to master certain subjects of the school course is not a sufficient basis for classification. The effect of the grouping upon the future efficiency of the pupil must be considered, and such consideration may necessitate important changes; for example, a child twelve years of age should not be kept in a class with children of six, even though he may rank with them in knowledge. The size of the class must be considered, not only in relation to the teacher's work, but to the subsequent efficiency of the pupils. In too large a class many of its members will be able to escape responsibilities of one kind or another, and thus fail to receive the proper kind of training. Too small a class lacks the stimulus that comes from numbers, and the variety that is characteristic of society.

Two important principles must be observed in successful classification. The members of the group should be mutually helpful, and frequent readjustment of the classification must be made because the rate of progress varies in individuals. Attention to the first principle will produce the "at home" feeling so essential to effective work. The first principle applies to the teacher as well as to the pupils. He must help them, and they must help him. It is unwise for the teacher to make himself a slave to his pupils. The pupils should be trained to work for the teacher and for the school as a whole. The teacher must be considered, both by himself and by his pupils, to be an integral part of the group—its counsellor, rather than

its dictator. The second principle involves all such questions as group teaching, length of term, oral and written examinations, promotions, and demotions. These will be considered in subsequent pages.

For the sake of both efficiency and economy, classification should be based upon approximately equal ability to do school work. If ten pupils can be taught together, there is manifest economy in time and effort; but there will always be the need of individual attention as well, in order to ensure satisfactory results. In addition to economy of time and effort, the class system furnishes in miniature the conditions that are found in a society which the child must eventually enter. The class, with its class spirit, its needs, and its complexity, constitutes a society so similar to that of an ordinary community that its members are prepared unconsciously for the larger life of the community and the state.

GOVERNMENT

To govern means to control in relation to some end. The immediate end in school government is to maintain order that will enable both teacher and pupils to perform the maximum amount of work each day. This must be done in such a way as eventually to attain a much more important end, namely, the development of a self-governing individual in a social group. The only way to produce self-governing individuals in social groups outside the school, is to secure self-government in the school, day by day, in every activity. The self-governing activities should gradually preponderate. Self-government is the aim, and the gradual attainment of it is the test of all good school management. For example, pupils should be so trained that, when the teacher leaves the room dur-

ing the school session, the class work will go on without interruption. Pupils aided by the teacher, when necessary, should have control of certain organizations, such as literary societies and athletic clubs.

The teacher's first duty, then, is to direct the efforts of the pupil with a view to his becoming a self-governing individual. But the teacher has also groups of individuals to govern—quite a different problem, because there is such a thing as a group or class consciousness. The school is an organic whole made up of human units, but it has characteristics as a whole which cannot be found in the units. Failure to recognize this will result in much confusion in school management. Hence, the teacher must study the government of his classes and of his school in such a way as to benefit both the individual members and the groups that form the classes and the larger unit—the school. This means that a class spirit and a school spirit should exist.

In group control one very important principle must be kept in mind. Children are loyal to the members of their group. If the teacher is looked upon as a member of the school and not as a dictator placed over it, he will ordinarily secure loyal response to his suggestions, and will be supported by the older pupils in cases where a member of a group is guilty of an act of disloyalty to his group. If, therefore, a teacher knows how to secure and retain for himself membership in the class, many difficulties in school management will never arise. Of the many means that may be used to secure this membership, play is probably the best. As one of the players more competent than the others, the teacher should take a deep interest in, and exercise some control of, the school games. Indeed, any common interest in work or play will suffice to bring about the desirable relation. A public entertain-

ment in which all take part; combined effort in securing a school library, or in decorating and caring for the class room; a school garden that is cared for by both teacher and pupils; or manual training work which is done by the pupils under the guidance of the teacher—all may become means of establishing this relation.

There is, however, danger that the teacher may come to view his system of management as of primary importance, whereas the pupils' needs must always be the chief consideration. The management must be constantly adjusted to meet these needs. A rigid organization, a plan of classification, or a form of government, will become unsuitable with lapse of time, because the needs of the pupils change. Any system of classification that has been in use for ten years, with practically no change, must have been unsuited to the needs of the pupils at some time during that period. Constant attention to the principle that the pupil must have first consideration is indispensable.

RELATION OF THE SCHOOL TO THE COMMUNITY

This complex unity, the school as a whole, cannot be understood without some knowledge of the community as a whole, because the school reflects, in great measure, the spirit of the community. Hence, it becomes necessary that the teacher should keep in touch with the parents and trustees. This can be done in two ways: by going into the homes and by bringing the parents and trustees to the school; that is, by making the school the real centre of community interest. The results of such interrelations may be very far-reaching.

The trustees and the teacher or teachers should meet together at least once a term, or monthly, if possible, to discuss necessary improvements in the school and its

surroundings, as well as many other similar questions that must arise from time to time in a progressive community. Frequently, a teacher asks for some improvement, a school garden, for example. The trustees refuse to provide for it, and there the matter usually ends. But a progressive teacher will not let it end there; often he can obtain his purpose by having conferences with the trustees and the parents, by circulating literature about the work, by getting the inspector to help, and by exhibiting a genuine interest in educational problems.

There are, indeed, many ways of bringing about desirable results. Sometimes the slow educative process is the best; at other times the insistent attitude may be wisely adopted. As to the most appropriate method, the tactful and resourceful teacher must decide. A young teacher in Western Ontario secured new seats in a rural school after many years of fruitless effort on the part of others. The trustees said: "Those seats were used by our fathers; they were good enough for them, and are good enough for our children." The teacher, who was giving satisfactory service, said: "I will stay another year if you will increase my salary and put in new seats." The trustees did both without further delay. A teacher who shows genuine interest in his pupils will seldom fail to obtain needed improvements. Interest begets interest. The pupils in their homes become advocates of the teacher's view, and with a persistency that usually brings a favourable decision.

CHAPTER II

RELATION OF MANAGEMENT TO METHOD

School Management should be an organic part of regular school work, and not superimposed upon it. The efficient teacher maintains order through work, and neither he nor his pupils are conscious of any efforts to that end. He develops and strengthens the habit of self-government by his methods of teaching, and not by means of lectures on good behaviour or by threats of punishment for misbehaviour.

The school virtues should be, for the most part, the natural outgrowth of the school activities, and of the mutual relation of helpfulness which the pupils, as members of the school community, should sustain towards one another and towards the teacher; and their inculcation should depend but little upon specific instruction. For example, the necessity for punctuality should be impressed upon the pupil more through seeing the interruption to the work of others caused by his lack of punctuality, than by talks on its rightness, or by the penalties that follow breaches of this virtue.

Literature and history lessons furnish many opportunities to inculcate the value of truthfulness. The value of accuracy can be developed in constructive work in the school room, the school garden, and the workshop, quite as well as in the teaching of arithmetic. The average child may not realize the importance of accuracy in the solution of a problem which is merely an exercise in arithmetic; but in making even a cardboard box, he soon learns that a mistake of an eighth of an inch in measurement makes a great deal of difference in the finished product.

ADJUSTMENTS OF VIEWS AND CONDITIONS

The school needs to be organized and conducted in such a way that all its activities shall contribute to the development of high qualities of character in its pupils, and to their practical equipment for efficient service as members of society. In order to train children to fit into social conditions, the organizations of the school should correspond to that of the future society in which these pupils must eventually find their places. It is true that no teacher, however wise, can foresee the conditions that will exist ten or twenty years hence, nor is it necessary that he should. It is essential, however, that children should be taught in such a way that they may be able, in later life, to fit themselves into the conditions that exist, or to bring about a change in those conditions that are unfavourable to their activities. This fitting of one's self to actual conditions, or the modification of conditions to suit one's self, is called adjustment.

Adjustment affects our relations to people, to the things around us, and to new ideas about things. A change of residence may require adjustment in social relations and in the mode of living. The changes of weather call for frequent adjustment in the kind of clothing worn. As ideas about forms of amusement change, it becomes necessary for each individual to readjust his views in order to fit into the new order of things. The present interest in athletic sports is the result of an extensive readjustment of views during the past few years. Then, too, individuals should seek to change their environment wherever conditions are unsatisfactory. Here there is a wide field for teachers, who will always find conditions within and about the school and in the relation of the school to the community, that require to be changed.

CLASSIFICATION OF TEACHERS

As teachers must possess this power of adjustment, it will be interesting to consider certain of the teacher's activities from the standpoint of their educational value. The lowest kind of teaching and managing is that of the imitator who blindly follows methods of teaching and discipline that he has seen, without the power to discriminate between good and bad methods. An illustration of the helplessness of such teachers is reported by an inspector, who visited a school in which the teacher was using a time-table prepared and sold by an educational publishing company. This time-table made provision for a Form V class which this school did not have. The inspector inquired of the teacher what she did when she came to this period. Her reply was: "I wait until the time comes for the next class, and then I proceed as indicated on the time-table." It is not possible for a teacher who merely imitates another's work or method to arouse educational activities in his pupils. His teaching will be mechanical, and the results will have little or no educational value.

The teacher who, in his own practice, makes a few slight modifications in another's mode of teaching is a step in advance of the teacher just described. He will be able to modify a time-table to meet the conditions in his own school, but he is still in bondage to his model. Since he is not consciously working on principles, his modifications may be quite ineffective, for he may make them in the wrong place. If new needs arise, he will not readily adjust himself or his methods to them.

The next class includes the majority of teachers. It contains those teachers who have acquired some knowledge of the principles of education and have learned to

apply them, with more or less success. This application is, of course, strongly coloured by the model teaching which they have observed. But, on the whole, teachers of this class will consider the end of education and the means at their disposal for accomplishing that end. They will relate the means and the end in their endeavour to solve the educational problems which face them. In doing this, the principles of education are more or less consciously observed. Thus, if an unruly boy is found in the school, such a teacher will remember the principle that boys who are interested in their work do not get into mischief. The end is to secure the good behaviour of the boy. The means at his disposal is the work to be done in the school. The teacher studies the boy, discovers what his interests are, and tries to relate the boy's work in school to those interests. One teacher in a city school secured the active co-operation and good will of a boy from the country by getting him to explain to the geography class certain phases of farm life about which the teacher herself was ignorant.

A small number of teachers belong to a still higher class. This class is made up of those teachers who are successful in dealing with new conditions requiring a still more complex adjustment than any previously considered. It may be a new exhibition of human nature in some pupil or a new phase of some subject. Usually such a problem arises in dealing with some abnormal pupil, a defective, or a genius. Or again, it is met when a new subject is introduced into the school, which was not on the course in the teacher's preparatory years. Any inspector knows how hard it is to persuade some experienced teachers to introduce a new subject, such as art, nature study, constructive work, or civics; yet the teacher who secures the valuable educational results is he who not only under-

stands the principles underlying the methods he employs, but is able also to adjust himself to new conditions. Such a teacher will be able to lead his pupils to make adjustments, and thus secure real educational activity.

There is yet another class of teachers which consists of those who make discoveries in education and bring about needed reforms in the work of our schools. They are not numerous, nor need they be. Most teachers will qualify for the honour roll of educators, if they follow wisely the lead given them by the world's great educators. The leaders to-day in science, in technical and vocational education, and in lines of educational activity that are intended to strengthen the weak and open a door of hope to the unfortunate, belong to this small class of educators who in all periods of the world's history have marked out new pathways leading to more complete educational efficiency.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF ADJUSTMENTS

CONSTRUCTIVE WORK

Turning now to the teaching of specific subjects let us consider the following activities in constructive work from the point of view of the amount of adjustment involved in each:

1. Copying a model placed before the class by the teacher.
2. Making an object larger than the model but of the same form and proportions.
3. Modifying the model for a definite purpose; for example, changing the shape of a box so as to fit a given space.
4. Making an article for a definite purpose suggested by the teacher; for example, a cover for a book.
5. Making an article for a definite purpose to satisfy a felt need of the pupil; for example, a sail for a boat or an apron for use in the home.

The adjustment required in the first exercise is merely that of material to a desired end, and of tools to a definite use. There is no conflict of ends nor is there any consideration of means, for the teacher has supplied these. All that is needed is a slight adjustment of a purely mechanical nature and of comparatively little educational value.

The second exercise involves some arithmetical calculations which increase the value of the work done.

The third involves some consideration of means and ends, with an assumed choice of ends on the part of the pupil; but the model is still the controlling factor and limits the freedom of the pupil. There is, however, a higher educational value in this exercise.

In the fourth exercise, the pupil is assumed to be left free to choose the necessary means and to accept the suggestion of the teacher. If he works out a plan and chooses the right kind of material to be used for the cover of the book, he is making constant adjustment, and his act is highly educational.

The fifth exercise demands a higher type of adjustment. There is a vital connection with the child's life. The sail is required to satisfy a real need. The boy is left to work out the problem. He must consider the size of the sail in relation to the boat, its shape for highest efficiency, its cost to suit his finances, the time at his disposal for making it, the material that will be most durable. All these are elements in the life of the boy similar to those which are found in adult life. The essential conditions for developing the power of adjustment are that the problem must be a real life problem requiring immediate solution, and that the individual must be left free to solve it in his own way. The teacher or parent will, of course, make suggestions, supply information, encourage endeavour, and commend success.

In order to secure the highest educational benefit from an exercise, the individual must be left more or less free in performing it. When this is the case, he will seek for information from teacher, parent, or book, and will not wait to have it thrust upon him. He will be in the proper mental attitude to accept suggestions and to understand explanations. The result will be increased efficiency in solving all kinds of problems. The weakness of ordinary problem solving, when the teacher gives too much help, is that little power is acquired to attack new problems.

The subject-matter of all courses of study can be treated, as shown in the examples given for constructive work, by beginning with exercises requiring little or no adjustment, and advancing to those requiring more.

ARITHMETIC

In arithmetic, an increasing amount of adjustment is required in the following series of exercises:

1. Learning by rote the statement that three feet equal one yard.
2. Discovering this fact by actual measurement of a yard stick with a foot rule.
3. Using the knowledge of the relation of a yard to a foot in reducing yards to feet or feet to yards.
4. Solving given problems involving these units; for example, to find the cost of 880 yards of fence at 5c. a foot.

More adjustment, still, is required when the problem arises in the pupil's own experience, and he attempts to solve it in his own way because he wants to do it. If, for example, he is building a chicken-house and wants to know the quantity of lumber needed for the building, several new elements are introduced that make up an entirely new problem. If, further, he has a certain sum at his disposal with which to pay for the material, a new problem has to be faced. Indeed, the element of the

limited amount of money may require him to change his plans entirely. Even if he should have to receive some assistance in working out the problem, the adjustments which have to be effected make his efforts of much more educational value.

It is impossible to introduce every form of arithmetical exercise through problems limited to the experience of the children. But where the teacher introduces each new topic through some problem that comes within their experience, there will be a decided increase in the interest taken in the work. One teacher introduced cubic measure in her class by relating it to a very heavy rainfall of the day before. All the pupils had a stock of experiences to draw upon, such as the flooding of the streets and cellars; and the newspaper reports gave the information that the quantity of rainfall in this case was 3.8 inches. The teacher seized upon this last statement and asked what it meant. Out of this question grew the problems that involved cubic measure, such as, How much rain fell upon each square foot, square yard, square rod of the earth's surface? The interest aroused lasted throughout their study of this new topic; and even the drills on the tables of square and cubic measure did not seem to lessen the interest in any way.

COMPOSITION

In composition there is the same variety of exercise from the standpoint of adjustment as in arithmetic. An exercise requiring practically no mental adjustment is that of copying passages from a book. Apart from the practice in writing which it supplies, and the impressing of literary forms upon the child's mind, such an exercise is not as valuable in its effect upon the pupil's expression as silent reading is.

If, however, the pupil is required to re-write a selection in his own words, he must first interpret the thought, then make an adjustment between this thought and his own vocabulary, and organize to some extent the sentences which give expression to the thought. The general plan of the story will, however, largely control his own plan, and the adjustment required is still small.

A higher type of exercise is that in which the pupil is required to alter a given story in order to make it more effective. The teacher may tell half the story and ask the class to complete it. The pupils are thrown upon their own resources and are left free to express their own ideas in their own language.

This kind of composition should lead to still more original work. The teacher may supply merely the outlines of the story in a few suggestive headings that indicate the paragraphs. The pupils must draw upon their experience to fill out the details, and must use their own forms of expression. In fitting the details to the topics, and in fitting the form of expression to their ideas, there is high training in adjustment. Another kind of work similar to this is writing stories suggested by pictures.

Manifestly, the next higher form of composition exercise is to write without either outlines or topics being furnished. A choice of subjects may be given, but the pupils have to analyse the subject into its main topics and fill in all details. Such work requires the organization of one's knowledge of the subject chosen, in addition to the kind of work required in the preceding exercises. This organization is the highest type of work that can be undertaken in composition, but there are all degrees of complexity in such work, and hence all degrees of adjustment. The success with which this kind of exercise is

carried out depends largely upon a thorough understanding of the subject, a command of language, and, above all, a vital purpose in writing the story. There is a vital purpose only when the writer has something he wishes to say to some one who is disposed to hear it. In adult life, these conditions exist between correspondents. If possible, therefore, something similar to these conditions should be established in writing school compositions. Correspondence between schools may be arranged, or each pupil may be asked to contribute something to a subject of study which is being pursued by the whole class. Even pupils in Form III classes might be assigned a topic for study that would form the basis for written comments upon it for the next day's lesson. History, geography, nature study, and literature should furnish a wealth of topics for such a purpose, and in this way a natural correlation may be established between the subject of composition and other subjects on the Course of Study.

HISTORY

It is more difficult to secure practice in adjustment in history than in the other subjects, and the usual elementary teaching of history gives very little opportunity for more than the most elementary educational activity, that is, the memorizing of facts. The next stage is that of relating the facts to one another in an orderly sequence of cause and effect. A higher type of exercise consists in the investigation of the accuracy of the facts learned, which requires a distinct advance in the attitude of the learner towards history. In its elementary stages, such investigation requires only that more than one book should be consulted. If the matter is one of pioneer days, it is possible that concrete evidence of the facts still exists.

Such evidence may easily be found in the Niagara peninsula and in many other parts of Canada. The teacher of Canadian history in such sections of the country who will not take his class out to investigate these evidences of past history and compare them with the written account in their text-books, will lose an excellent opportunity of securing educational activity.

The next higher type of exercise in history consists in tracing the influence of historical events upon the development of society. In this kind of work the individual has a definite end in view; the data at command constitute the means for accomplishing this end; the relation of means to end requires adjustment at every step. This kind of historical work is now done in correlation with constructive work and nature study. Cotton, wool, and flax are studied in relation to their use in the household. The children learn how the fibres of cotton and flax are obtained, and what is the source of wool. They attempt to convert each into threads. If they fail, they at least get an idea of the difficulties to be met in the production of even simple materials. They make simple looms and weave in a primitive way. As each new step is worked out, the teacher guides their reading along historical lines. Dewey says: "You can concentrate the history of all mankind into the evolution of the flax, cotton, and wool fibres into clothing." A scrap-book of pictures and historical facts is made, and in this simple but interesting way many important facts are learned. Such work, however, cannot be of value unless, as it proceeds, the teacher discusses the reliability of the sources of information. In this way the pupils will gradually learn that a distinction has to be made between unverified statements and authentic history, between the newspaper and the

encyclopædia, between the story book or novel and the text-book.

A still higher type of work in history consists in the study of the great principles underlying the development of national life; for example, responsible government. But unless the pupils can find some immediate concrete example of the working of this kind of government it is not likely to mean much to them. Occasionally, the election of a Cabinet Minister may bring its meaning home to them, but these occurrences are few, and far apart in time. It is quite possible, however, to form a Cabinet in the school, and to go through part of the form of an election that would make the proceeding clear to a Form III or Form IV class. In other matters a relation may be established between the historical event and the experience of each of the pupils; for example, billeting soldiers in private houses may be compared with billeting delegates who attend modern conventions.

There is a kind of historical work still more valuable, as measured by the amount of adjustment required. A study of history is essentially a study of social institutions, including that of government. In order to lead the pupils to understand the principles of government, they must practise some form of government themselves. Student organizations are of value mainly because they supply the conditions for self-government. The judicious teacher will insist upon the pupils bearing most of the responsibility in the success of such organizations, his own active interest in their management being chiefly that of an adviser.

From what has been said, the relation which the teaching of the various subjects of study bears to school management should be apparent. If the pupils have opportunities to apply to their daily activities what they learn

in each subject, the whole Course of Study will be vitalized; and when the pupils have experienced the difficulties of solving their own personal problems they will be more sympathetic with the teacher in his attempt to solve the regular school problems. In this way the management of the school becomes an integral part of the work of the school, not something imposed upon it.

PROGRESSIVE ADJUSTMENT

As pupils advance in age, exercises demanding higher types of adjustment should be required. These should, of course, be graduated to the different ages of the children, and should increase in difficulty somewhat as follows:

1. Learning or doing what is assigned by the teacher.
2. Modifying the work outlined by the teacher, or amplifying it.
3. Completing work after the teacher has directed some of the steps in it.
4. Securing and using means for an end set up by the teacher, who directs the whole activity.
5. Securing and using means for an end conceived by the pupils' own needs, but directed by the teacher.
6. Entire freedom of the pupil in conceiving the end, securing the means, and making his own adjustments.

If the school is organized on the same principles that operate in society, and if each lesson is taught in such a way as to develop the pupils' power of adjustment, the aim of education will be attained as a natural result of the work of the school. Devices in teaching and in management have their place, but if the organization and the methods of management and teaching do not tend towards the desired end, these devices cannot accomplish anything beyond a temporary and apparent success.

The successful teacher is he who so organizes his school and teaches his classes that, through the regular daily work of the school, he is able effectively to inculcate the school virtues, mould the characters of his pupils, and develop their powers of self-restraint, self-activity, and self-expression, and so make them efficient members of the social order in which they are to find their fitting place.

CHAPTER III

THE RECITATION

IN THE UNGRADED SCHOOL

SATISFACTORY results can be secured only when the teacher has a well correlated system of conducting the work of the school. Not only must the teaching of the lesson be considered, but also the pupils' work in class, and their study at their seats and in their homes. The teacher's work includes preparation for the teaching of the lesson, the assignment of seat work and home work, the training of pupils in methods of study, and sufficient individual instruction to enable each pupil to keep up with the work of the class. As the pupils in an ungraded school spend the greater proportion of their time at seat work, the teacher must give special attention to organizing and supervising this work; for the progress of the pupils will depend upon the character of the seat work quite as much as upon the work done in class.

IN THE GRADED SCHOOL

In the class room where there is only one class—as in most urban schools—the problem of directing the work profitably is simpler, though not easier, than in the rural school. The advantage of the single class is offset by the large number of pupils in the class—a condition which demands a higher quality of teaching, and greater skill and insight on the part of the teacher, to prevent the needs of individual pupils from being overlooked.

Moreover, in the single-class system, where the same pupils are under instruction from the beginning to the end of the school day, with little or no intermission for attacking and trying to solve for themselves the difficulties that confront them, they are apt to lose the power to think for themselves. Such a condition is unsatisfactory to the alert and conscientious teacher, and injurious to the pupils; it may be remedied by having two classes in each room, one engaged in seat work, while the other is having class work. This arrangement, too, would afford opportunity for pupils in the senior class to review, with the junior class, the subjects in which they are not proficient. In some subjects the two classes could be taught together.

ASSIGNMENT OF WORK

In his study of the Science of Education the teacher learns the nature and value of the different kinds of lessons. A Manual on School Management need only contain a treatment of the relation of the various kinds of lessons to the successful carrying on of the work of the school. No lesson is an end in itself; it is only part of a total process, directed by the teacher, through which the child is to be trained to become socially efficient. Unless each lesson is definitely planned as a part of such process, it cannot be considered a good lesson.

SEAT WORK

The assignment of work to follow up the recitation is an important part of the daily class management. Too frequently the assignment for seat work is a mere mechanical exercise, given for the purpose of keeping those at their seats busy, or of preventing them from getting into mischief; as, for example, the application of the

elementary rules of arithmetic, the copying of stanzas from the Reader, or the writing of lists of words. The waste of time that results from not relating the seat work to the class work is responsible for much of the failure to master the present enriched Course of Study. In preparing the lessons for the next day the teacher should plan as definitely for the seat work as for the class work.

The time-table should show the subjects that the class are to study at their seats, while other classes are reciting. The teacher's preparation for the next day's work should be entered in his note-book. Such an entry may be in the following form, which shows that, while Form IV is having a recitation in spelling, the other Forms are engaged in seat work, as indicated:

9.05-9.20—Form IV: (R) Spelling.—Reader, p. 28.
Form I, Part I: Picture Study.—Primer, p. 23.
Form I, Part II: Transcription.—Write p. 8.
Form II: Literature.—Read over lesson and prepare a list of difficult words and phrases for consideration in class.
Form III: Spelling.—Review words misspelled during the past week. Write out ten difficult words from p. 26, and be prepared to give their pronunciation and meaning.

These seat studies should be read to the class immediately after opening exercises in the morning.

A serious fault in making assignments is a lack of definiteness, as when the pupils are told to study for home work the next paragraph or the next chapter; even adult pupils get very little benefit from such an assignment. The best results are secured by outlining a definite piece of work for the pupils, indicating how to proceed with it,

and telling where assistance may be obtained. If this is properly attended to, not only will definite information in relation to the topic be secured, but also many subsidiary facts will be learned. The teacher should see that the assignment for each day's work in a subject is logically related to previous recitations in the same subject, and also related, as far as possible, to recitations in other subjects. Such a relation may be illustrated from the subject of composition. The essential condition for producing good compositions is a mind full of ideas of common interest to the writer and his readers. There should be a motive for the expression of the writer, consisting of a desire to secure from the reader a response agreeing with the writer's views or feelings. How can such a motive be established in a child's mind? Records of one's own experiences are the commonest modes of expression of this nature that appeal to children. Consequently, a composition lesson should follow a lesson which will furnish interesting content for it. A nature study lesson on the oriole should be followed by an assignment in composition on this topic, with a view to making a deeper impression of what has been learned. These compositions will then furnish material for a lesson on the use of words, the structure of sentences, or the correct use of grammatical forms. The knowledge of language thus gained will be found valuable not only in formal exercises, such as are found in all text-books on Composition, but also in all future attempts to express one's ideas.

HOW TO STUDY

In order to acquire the ability to solve difficulties, and thus become a valuable member of adult society, the pupil must have acquired the power to concentrate his

mind upon a subject, with a definite end in view. The teacher should aim, therefore, to develop good habits of study in his pupils. The first step in this direction is a sound method of teaching. The way in which the teacher handles a new topic in the class will affect the way in which the pupils will attack other topics that have to be mastered by their own efforts. This is one of the strongest arguments for good teaching in all subjects. If, then, recitation is followed by a careful assignment, accompanied by instruction as to the source of material and the use to make of it, the pupil will be able to approach his work with an intelligent comprehension of what he is trying to accomplish, and should have formed fairly good habits of study before leaving the public school.

Students in our training schools learn how to study by learning how to prepare the lessons they are to teach. In this work, they are taught to consider first the aim of the lesson, because the aim determines the whole teaching process. It is also equally important in the studying process. For example, the teacher will treat the reproduction story in composition and the same story in history somewhat differently. In the former, the stress will be put upon the language used by the pupils; in the latter, it will be put upon the accurate reproduction of the facts. So, in studying a story as a composition lesson, the student will attend carefully to the language, whereas in studying it as a history lesson, he will attend to the facts. One of the first things that a student must learn, therefore, is the aim of the lesson.

A proper conception of the aim is preliminary to the adequate preparation of a lesson. It is necessary also to arouse the interest of the pupil in order to call forth the effort required to accomplish the aim. At this point the teacher, with his wider experience, can be of great assis-

tance to the learner. This assistance should be given in such a way as to develop the self-reliance and self-activity of the child. In general, the teacher should observe the principle that a pupil should not be told anything that he can learn through his own efforts within a reasonable time.

Suppose, for example, that the student is reading the poem, *The Lady of Shalott*, and comes to the stanza ending,

> Out flew the web and floated wide;
> The mirror cracked from side to side;
> "The curse is come upon me," cried
> The Lady of Shalott.

An advanced class studying this poem would aim to discover the important truth that the author is trying to present. They would have learned that the Lady of Shalott is described as forsaking a secluded, unreal life, for a direct participation in an active life, and would, therefore, try to interpret this remarkable occurrence in relation to such change. Let us assume that they fail, and come to the teacher with the question: "What does it mean?" The teacher will not answer directly. Rather he will ask them to compare their own unreal experiences such as their imagination of a place which they had never visited, with their feeling when they saw it for the first time, and found it very different from the pictures of the place conceived in their imaginations. Then he would ask: "What happened to the picture you had imagined, as soon as you saw the real place?" It was practically destroyed; and so the pupils are led to realize that, in like manner, the Lady of Shalott lost her former views of life as soon as she had new experiences—"The mirror cracked from side to side."

Or again, in teaching a Form II class the multiplication table, the actual result of 4×3 is shown by means of

sticks, and the pupil works out his own table under the guidance of the teacher. Naturally, his knowledge of addition will be used in finding the product, but, by placing the sticks in groups of four, as the multiplicand, and showing, as the multiplier, three of these groups, the pupil arrives at the product through the process of multiplication.

After the aim has been clearly grasped, interest in its accomplishment aroused, and the related knowledge revived, the rest of the teaching process consists in learning facts, in using them as a basis for deducing general principles, and in extending knowledge by applying the principles. Unless, however, these facts and principles are to be used for a definite purpose, there can be no object in trying to become familiar with them.

The studying process should be similar to the teaching process in each of these ways, that is, in learning facts, deducing principles, and applying them. A great part of the pupil's time up to ten years of age should be spent in learning facts, both from books and from actual experience. The chief function of the teacher during this period is to provide the conditions for the right kind of experience. Too frequently, the teacher presents only the words which stand for experience, and vainly hopes that much study of these will produce the same results as experience will produce.

INTERPRETING EXPERIENCES

A second function of the teacher is to help the pupil to interpret his experiences. Such assistance is most wisely given by questioning the pupil in such a way as to relate the new experience to his present knowledge, and by illustrating its essential facts in some simple way.

Thus, if a child asks about an eclipse of the moon, the teacher will question him about shadows, and will show, by using two spheres and a light, the shadow of one sphere falling on another when the former sphere is placed between the source of light and the latter. Finally, he will explain the relation in space of the sun, the moon, and the earth. In rendering assistance in this way, the teacher observes the principle: *Never tell what the pupil ought to discover for himself.*

CORRECTING WRONG IDEAS

Still another function of the teacher is to correct the wrong ideas which his pupils have obtained both in and out of school. It may seem, at first, that the child is more often wrong than right. The simplest phenomena of everyday life are carelessly observed. The deductions made from these are usually only partly right, and often wholly wrong. Again, wrong forms of words are used, many words are mispronounced, and many others are misapplied. Much of the stock of the world's humour comes from children's mistakes in judgment, and in the use of words. The teacher should deal very sympathetically with his pupils' blunders; otherwise co-operation will be made impossible.

The teacher may provide conditions, but it is evident that the pupil must get his own experiences. Moreover, the study of each subject demands experience of a distinctive kind. For example, knowledge of arithmetic is based upon experience in measuring; knowledge of literature and history is based largely upon experiences of life; knowledge of geography upon experiences connected with the immediate locality. Hence, the teacher should correlate constructive work with arithmetic, and nature study with geography. The most fruitful study period of a

class in arithmetic may be that spent outdoors measuring a pile of wood or a board fence. A visit to an historical spot may be the best kind of preparation for the next history lesson, and an afternoon spent in the woods and along the banks of a local stream may be a necessary preliminary to the next step in geography. As a rule children will not need to be urged to take part in studies of this kind. The fact that they are interesting makes such studies doubly valuable.

HOW TO USE BOOKS

But children must learn to secure information from people and from books. Interesting experiences arouse the questioning attitude in the child's mind, as any teacher who has taken classes on nature study trips has learned. Under the stimulus of an interesting experience a suggestion to find the answer to the questions in some book will be readily accepted. The teacher should instruct his pupils how to use books, and thus form a valuable habit of study. The most important feature of such teaching is that it cultivates the habit of consulting an authority, it may be a dictionary, a history, a geography, or other source of information.

THE INDUCTIVE METHOD

Nearly every new lesson in grammar, arithmetic, and elementary science, many lessons in geography, a few in history and in some other subjects, are conducted in the form known as the inductive method. The continued use of this method of teaching should develop a similar method of study. Form III and Form IV classes should be made conscious of the nature of the inductive method, which is essentially a process of comparison for the purpose of discovering the essential characteristics of the

things compared in relation to the end in view. A Form IV class should know how to proceed in order to answer such questions as: Compare British Columbia and California geographically.

In answering this question the pupils should know the principal heads under which the geography of a country is usually studied and arrange the facts in an orderly form under them for comparison:

British Columbia	California
Lat. 49°—60° N.	Lat. 32°—42° N.
Situation—On the Pacific Ocean.	On the Pacific Ocean.
Area—358,000 sq. m.	158,000 sq. m.
Population—350,000 (approx.)	1,300,000 (approx.)
Surface—Mountainous, consisting of a succession of mountain ranges and valleys parallel with the coast, which has numerous good harbours.	Mountainous, consisting of a succession of mountain ranges and valleys parallel with the coast, which has only one good harbour.

In a similar way the main facts about the rivers and lakes, the prevailing winds, climate, products, and industries of the people may be tabulated. From these the resemblances and differences will be apparent, and certain deductions can be made.

If a new country is to be taken up in a succeeding lesson, the teacher should expect the pupils to make themselves acquainted with the main facts before coming to the class. The recitation period may then be spent in verifying and extending the knowledge of facts and in making deductions therefrom. The assignment for seat work may be map drawing and memorization of important facts learned.

THE DEDUCTIVE METHOD

The application of general principles to the interpretation of new cases is the most advanced form of teaching. It is known as the deductive process. It was not uncommon, some years ago, for teachers to attempt to make use of this method in the Form III classes. Thus, in grammar, the usual definition was taught, and exercises assigned in which the parts of speech were to be determined by the pupil applying the definition. That they were often found cannot be denied, but, when they were found, their selection depended upon comparison with the types used in teaching, and not upon reference to the definition. The mental activity involved was that known as practical judgment and, although valuable, it was not in any sense a deductive process of reasoning.

If, then, the majority of public school pupils cannot reason deductively, the deductive method of study cannot be used to any great extent. The recognition of a new example as similar to a type example is a process of comparison, and is, therefore, a part of the inductive exercise, which is the most valuable for pupils under twelve years of age. After twelve years of age pupils should be trained to study deductively. An assignment for seat work which demands this method of study should be made. Thus, after teaching the physical law that metals expand when heated, pupils should be asked to look up the names of some common metals, and to state the effect that will be produced by heating them. They should refer to some authority to ascertain the different degrees of expansion of different metals. Or, if the lesson has been on climate, and the pupils have learned that large bodies of water adjacent to a country moderate the climate, they should be asked to find on their maps the countries of Europe, the climatic condi-

tions of which are most likely to be affected by adjacent bodies of water. They should then refer to the text-book in order to confirm their conclusions, and to learn the effect of this moderation of the climate upon the products of the country. In arithmetic and in grammar, the method of study has always been deductive in intention, if not in fact. Thus, as soon as the pupils have learned the principle of finding area, they are required to apply it in the working of problems of a practical nature. When they have learned the definitions of the parts of speech, they are required to name the part of speech to which each word belongs in a selected passage.

All such exercises should be so conducted as to relate, as far as possible, the work of the school to the experiences of later life. The problems in arithmetic should, therefore, deal with matters that come within the range of practical experience. The exercises in grammar should be assigned with direct reference to the effect upon the pupils' power of using and interpreting language. Good teaching, proper assignment, and intelligent application to study will gradually develop in pupils habits of thought and action that will make them efficient members of the social organization in which every man should be ready to play his part.

QUESTIONING

The mode of conducting the recitation is, without exception, the best test of a teachers' power and efficiency. Good questioning is fundamental to good recitation, and is essential to successful school management. Skill in questioning primarily depends upon the confidence of the teacher in the fullness and accuracy of his knowledge of the subject. He must not only know his subject, but he must know that he knows it. To this must be added a

readiness to grasp the relation of part to part, and to understand how each part contributes to the end in view which the teacher should have clearly in mind. His questions then will naturally lead up to what he wishes to develop, and not be asked in a haphazard fashion.

How the teacher comports himself before the class is a matter to which he should give special attention. His bearing and manner will seldom fail to be reflected in his pupils. A teacher who has a lounging, indifferent attitude need not be surprised at the listlessness of his pupils. He should be active in his movements, and bright and sympathetic in manner. Indeed, it is difficult to conceive how a teacher who clings to his seat habitually can successfully conduct a recitation with boys and girls of active minds and bodies.

A well-conducted recitation should be the means of developing in the pupils skill and readiness in the use of language, of which the teacher should himself be the exponent. Facility in the use of language will enable the teacher to give variety to his questions, and to avoid monotonous repetition, which has a deadening effect upon mental alertness. Monotony in questioning may also be relieved, and a more lasting impression produced by illustrations from familiar experiences and by an occasional anecdote; but the teacher must avoid the danger of becoming anecdotal, and of talking much about himself, his knowledge, and his experiences. While he should have a definite plan of the recitation, and a series of questions well thought out, he must be ready to change both plan and questioning to meet unexpected situations, which often arise out of the pupils' answers.

At the beginning of a recitation the pupils should be invited to ask questions on any points in the preceding lesson on which additional light is needed, and, if the

teaching has been thorough, it should be possible to have the questions answered by other pupils of the class. Then a few questions should be asked by the teacher to test the pupils' knowledge of what has been studied, and to relate the preceding lesson to the one in hand.

Pupils should be given the opportunity to ask questions at all times during the recitation, and, when they are sufficiently mature, to discuss answers that have been given by the class, showing in what respects they are correct, or wherein they lack completeness. They should also be required frequently to express an answer in another form, even when it is correct. Above all, it should be borne in mind that the most helpful recitation is not one in which the teacher is merely testing the pupils' knowledge, but one in which teacher and pupils are working together in the development of some thought, or in the solution of some problem, the teacher himself controlling the discussion and directing it along profitable lines.

The teacher should aim to arouse the thought process in each pupil by giving the question to the whole class, and, after a pause, requiring an answer from a pupil named. It is evident also that the teacher should distribute his questions well, and not in any regular order known to the pupils, so as to prevent them from anticipating their turn.

Whether in ordinary recitations or in written tests, the teacher should be careful to have his questions expressed in simple language and in the fewest words that are required to make the meaning clear. Questions should be so direct and clear as to be capable of only one interpretation.

Questions should be of such a character as to stimulate thought. If they are too simple, or "silly," as the

pupils would call them, they fail to excite interest, and the pupils become listless. Whenever a pupil shows signs of listlessness, arouse him with a question.

While the general principle of leading the pupils from the known to the unknown should be observed in class questioning, the teacher must be sure that they start from the known. Some things cannot be developed by any process of reasoning; they must be told by the teacher, or learned from books. To develop from any previous knowledge the terms used in grammar, the facts of history, or the names given to the elements or to natural forces, would be tantamount to making bricks, not only without straw, but without either straw or clay. Teachers who lack judgment or experience, and who are, therefore, unable to distinguish between the proper and the improper use of the inductive process of reasoning, have been known to waste time in trying to develop a principle in cases where the pupils did not know the facts from which the principle is deduced. Such an effort means more than waste of time; it confuses the pupils, and causes them to lose confidence in the teacher, and any success, which is only apparent, may confirm the unsuspecting teacher in his bad methods.

TREATMENT OF ANSWERS

Pupils should stand to answer. They should really stand, not lean on the desk behind nor on the half-raised seat. In rural schools they are usually called to the front to recite. In this position they should stand erect and in orderly lines. When pupils are seated, they should be required to step out and forward, opposite their own desks, before answering. Leaning on the desk behind, or stepping back, is suggestive of indolence or lack of

confidence. When the correct attitude has been assumed there ought to be clearer thinking and better expression; there ought to be an improvement in tone, enunciation, and fluency. A further reason for assuming the standing position is that, as the teacher stands, the pupils should stand also. Besides, it is desirable that pupils should be out of their seats as much as possible, in order to prevent physical injury from too constantly sitting in seats, which at the best, cannot be perfectly adapted to growing children.

When a pupil who is asked to answer a question fails to do so, let him remain standing, while one or more of the others are called upon to answer. If all fail, then call on the class. If there is little or no response, which may be shown by the raising of hands, without any accompanying noise or demonstration, such as the snapping of fingers, the pupils standing should take their seats. The question should then be withdrawn, and restated in a different form, or approached through one or more simpler questions which may seem necessary to link up that which is known with that which the question seeks to develop. If, however, there is a ready response from the class, call on a pupil to answer. It should be unnecessary to state that the pupil called on should be one of those who have shown their readiness to respond, if it were not that teachers have been known to exhibit a strange perversity by asking some one who gave no sign of ability to answer the question. Whether the pupil thus called on can answer the question or not, he takes his seat after his effort. One who volunteers an answer must not be kept standing, even if he fails. In the case of those standing, they must always have the first opportunity to answer the question or questions that follow. Such a method of questioning will not fail to keep the

class alert, and the minds of the pupils intent upon the work in hand.

Talking or other interruptions during a recitation should in the first instance be treated as mere thoughtlessness or as a breach of good manners. If the teacher has proper control of himself and is a master of his subject, this offence should never get beyond the first stage, that in which it arises from a thoughtless impulse. The teacher's movements, aided by a glance of the eye, a change of tone, or a brief suspension of the voice, should serve as a sufficient check. These are more effective than scolding or speaking in a loud tone, which only irritates the pupils, and frequently causes an aggravation of the offence. A boy who was a good student, but inclined to pranks, on being asked why he behaved so well in a certain teacher's class, replied: "You can't have any fun in her class; she just looks at you so," and the "just looking at you so" is wonderfully effective in the maintenance of discipline.

The nature of the answering insisted on by the teacher has a far-reaching effect upon the general management of the school. In the first place, the pupils should do a greater proportion of the talking than is usual in the recitation. Some teachers secure this result by insisting upon complete statements in all answers. This, however, is contrary to practice in actual life. Even a teacher accustomed to demanding the full statement in answers in the class room would be surprised if he should receive that form of answer in his business relations. Moreover, he would consider it unnecessary and artificial. The teacher should simply insist upon an answer that is suited in form to the question. This will demand conscious effort on the part of the pupil in composing the answer.

Some questions require a sentence answer; others do not. A few questions and answers are given to illustrate the rational construction of answers in a logical series of questions on a review of the climate of India.

What range of mountains is north of India? The Himalayas.
Describe them. The Himalayas are very rugged, steep, and high, containing some of the highest peaks in the world.
What is the highest peak? Mount Everest.

What kind of country is north of these mountains? It consists of a high and extensive plateau.

How high is it? Twenty-nine thousand feet.

How does it affect the climate of India? In summer, when the plateau is warmer than the ocean, the wind blows from the Indian Ocean across India to the plateau. As a result, the rainfall over the country is heavy. In winter, the wind blows from the dry plateau across India to the ocean, and there is no rainfall because the wind is without moisture. Thus, there are two seasons, a wet and a dry.

In these questions the teacher uses thirty-six words, while the pupil uses one hundred words in his answers. Such answers require conscious effort on the part of the pupil in deciding upon the form that they should take.

Answers ought to be longer than they usually are, and the pupils should be trained to answer in paragraphs. Thus, in the Science of Education, in reply to a question concerning the nature of habit, Normal School students should be trained to make a general statement, then to explain it, and, finally, to illustrate it. Teachers in the public school should aim to develop this type of answering. They should expect paragraph answers in history, geography, elementary science, hygiene, and literature. The answers to the questions above on the climate of India, will illustrate this kind of answering.

The answers of pupils in all subjects furnish the best material for language training. If every lesson is, in part, a language lesson, few formal language lessons will be needed. The teacher who teaches a fifteen-minute lesson one day on the correct uses of was and were, and fails to demand the correct use of these words upon other occasions, has a wrong conception of teaching. The fact that many well-educated men have confirmed habits of inaccurate speech is evidence that the study of the theoretical side of language does not ensure the correct use of it. In language, writing, and spelling, the pupils must be habituated incidentally, as well as in the formal lessons, to the use of correct forms of speech. Knowing what is right, and doing it, either in the realm of language, or in that of morals, represent two quite different responses to environment.

Simultaneous answering by the class is objectionable, because the slower pupils make a pretence of knowing, by chiming in with the brighter pupils' answers. Thus they use words without understanding their meaning, and acquire a very injurious habit. Little mental development results from such an exercise, and the claim that it encourages timid pupils to answer is the opposite of the truth. Simultaneous answering tends to discourage individual answering. As a general practice, spelling, reading, and reciting in unison should be prohibited, as most of the time thus spent is wasted. To hear a class of forty pupils spelling a list of forty words three times each in loud, sing-song voices is the most unbearable school exercise conceivable.

In this discussion it is assumed that questions will be so framed that they cannot be answered by a simple "Yes," or "No," and that "scrappy" answers will not be

accepted. In drill lessons in which short answers are suitable, a pupil may be given several questions, while he is on his feet. In graded schools the whole class should stand for short drill lessons. Many lessons in hygiene can be taught satisfactorily only when the pupils are standing.

Advanced pupils who cannot answer the questions asked, should be trained to stand and say so. To make no response to the teacher's question is unmannerly. To stand and say nothing may indicate a mere pretence at answering. To say, "I do not know," or,"I know but I cannot tell," enlightens the teacher, and is a good moral exercise for the pupil. Some teachers object to the latter response, claiming that inability to answer indicates entire ignorance of the question. But it is quite possible to have a vague knowledge that cannot, on account of its vagueness, be expressed definitely in words. Some other form of expression—by gesture, or by drawing—may be possible, and such expression, even though crude and imperfect, will help to make vague knowledge definite. Hence, children who say that they "know, but cannot tell," should be encouraged to try some other form of expression.

The teacher who aspires to make his class work effective, should know what kind of answers to expect, and make a study of the methods of treating answers. Wrong answers must be skilfully corrected. Misstatements of mere matters of fact, such as dates, names, and areas, must be corrected by the teacher personally, or by reference to some authority. But when the error is made in a reasoning process, the correction itself must be in the nature of a process. The correct answer, stated by the teacher or by another pupil, will show that the answer is incorrect, but not why it is incorrect. Such a method

gives no power to solve the next problem. Moreover, it may hinder its solution, because a group of words that has a vague meaning to the pupil merely causes mental confusion, and leads nowhere. Owing to the difficulty of determining the cause, it is hard to deal with incorrect answers. The pupil's past experience may have been inadequate; his mind may be filled with other more interesting content; he may be indifferent to the solution of the problem because of lack of interest; he may be mentally immature; or he may be unable to grasp the meaning of the language used.

The teacher, however, must endeavour by means of questions to discover wherein the difficulty lies, and by means of further questions, to develop the pupil's thought logically. The first effort made by the teacher should be to simplify the question, either in its wording or in its comprehensiveness. He should use simpler language, give a less comprehensive question, and try to relate the question more closely to the pupil's experience. Often a comparison with some familiar situation is all that is needed.

Teachers should not form the habit of repeating answers, as it wastes time and energy, and encourages the pupils to answer inaudibly. The pupil who answers should make himself heard by all the other members of the class. Neither should a teacher respond to questions with, "Yes, that's right," or with some other stereotyped phrase. If an answer is particularly well given, the teacher may, of course, express commendation of it.

When a pupil has been asked a question and is making an effort to answer it, the other pupils should not be allowed to embarrass him by raising hands and snapping fingers in their effort to exhibit their greater ability to answer. The teacher should insist on mannerly

behaviour in the class room; such interruptions are not mannerly.

In view of the importance of good questioning, and a proper method of dealing with answers, a few general directions to the teacher may be summarized, as follows:

1. State questions once and pause for a reply. Don't fill in the time by restating the question differently.
2. If a question is not answered, approach it by a series of questions more intelligible to the pupil.
3. Don't ask a question that gives a clue to the answer.
4. Don't encourage guessing by repeating the same question to different pupils.
5. Avoid asking questions that can be answered by "Yes," or "No," unless followed by the pupil's reasons for the answer.
6. Avoid always questioning the children who are most forward in answering; give the slow and timid a chance.
7. Don't waste time by trying to develop, by questioning, something that should be told at once.

Questions should be:

1. Stated to the whole class
2. Well-distributed over the class
3. Expressed in simple language, and in the fewest possible words
4. Direct and clear in meaning; capable of only one interpretation
5. Of such a character as to stimulate thought
6. Connected, not rambling or disjointed
7. Directed towards the orderly development of the subject in hand.

How to treat answers:

1. Require all answers to be given in good grammatical form.
2. Do not reject incomplete or partially correct answers, but ask for other answers from pupils, and when you have had several answers, none of which are quite complete, give the correct answer yourself in good literary form, being sure that the pupils see wherein their answers lack completeness.

3. Reject incorrect answers, but in a kindly manner; otherwise, pupils become discouraged from trying to answer.
4 See that the answer, even if correct, is not merely a group of words, understood neither by the one who answers, nor by the class.
5. Avoid repeating a pupil's answer, except for the purpose of making additions or corrections, as mentioned above.
6. Don't try to get answers in set forms of words; if they are at all correct, better have each pupil express his thought in his own words.
7. Don't prompt, or allow prompting. Prompting on the part of the teacher often arises from too great a hurry to complete an answer.
8. Never allow pupils in answering, or in any other class exercise, to piece out what the teacher has begun—no "patch work" answers.
9. Answers that are purposely ridiculous can best be disposed of by turning the laugh against the would-be joker; this is more effective than regarding such answers as breaches of discipline.

CHAPTER IV

THE CHILD

THE school is organized with a definite end in view, that of promoting the efficiency of the child as a future member of society. In a properly organized school, teacher and pupil are placed in the best possible environment for doing effective work, without waste of time or energy. This implies conditions that contribute to the pupil's comfort and convenience, and to his harmonious development.

HEALTH CONDITIONS

The state of the child's health has a direct relation to the efficiency of his work. When a child is healthy, he can do more and better work than when he is unhealthy. With good health many unfavourable conditions may be overcome; without it all unfavourable conditions are intensified. That many have persevered and succeeded under a handicap of ill-health is conceded. William Pitt, General Wolfe, and Sir Walter Scott are outstanding examples; but no one doubts that these men could have accomplished even more than they did, if their physical strength had been commensurate with their mental vigour. The principle of "a sound mind in a sound body" is one that teachers especially should endeavour to observe in reference both to themselves and to their pupils.

Good health implies cleanliness, abounding energy, freedom from the distraction of pain, and, consequently, greater receptivity. Moreover, good health has a marked effect upon the behaviour of the pupils; there is less necessity for discipline among healthy pupils than among

pupils who are unhealthy. The principal of a large city school has stated that the number of cases of discipline was much reduced by introducing the open-air system in the school. In general, the efficiency of mental work will bear a close relation to the physical efficiency of the pupils.

The intellectual, emotional, and volitional states of the child have as important a bearing upon efficiency as the physical condition. A normal intellectual activity is conducive to health, but when it is excessive, or too long sustained, it becomes injurious. Again, pleasurable emotions tend to improve the general health, while emotions that are not pleasurable tend to injure it. Hence, it is important that pleasurable emotions should be aroused in the pupils. This can be done only when the teacher maintains the right emotional state himself. If he is cheerful, the pupils are likely to reflect the same spirit. In the third place, health is related to volitional activity. When reactions are controlled there is less waste of nervous energy than when there is marked lack of control. The teacher should attend to all these conditions, because only by making them favourable can effective work be secured.

THE CHILD'S ATTITUDE

The child should have the right attitude towards his work. The attitude of the pupil to his school constitutes the most marked difference between the school of to-day and the school of former years. To-day the child views the work of the school as a pleasurable occupation. In former years he was apt to look upon it as an unpleasant task, which had no interest for him; and, "creeping like snail, unwillingly to school," he was very likely to prove by his attitude in school that an uninterested pupil is always an unsatisfactory member of a class.

The daily work of the school should appeal to the interests of the child. Too many have acted on the principle that education is necessarily uninteresting. Now, however, games, nature study, art, constructive work, household science, music—all interesting studies—have won their place as school activities. The improvement of school grounds and the decoration of class rooms are receiving attention. A public school building in Chatham, Ontario, contains thousands of dollars' worth of pictures, one painting alone valued at seven hundred dollars. Interesting work and beautiful environment tend to foster a right spirit for the performance of school work.

SCHOOL ATTRACTIONS

There is a manifest advantage when the actual environment of the pupil is interesting and stimulating. The decoration and equipment of the class room, the pictures on the walls, the furniture, the colour scheme, all contribute to effective school work. Different colour schemes arouse different states of feeling. It is not beyond the range of probability that the conduct of a whole class could be much modified by a change in the furnishing and decoration of the class room.

The equipment used in teaching should be selected partly from the point of view of effect upon interest. Charts, globes, maps, specimens, drawing models, blocks, and other equipment intensify the interest in the work, and help the teacher to direct his pupils to the desired goal more economically and effectively. The text-books used are much more valuable, if the information they contain is presented in an interesting form; and a carefully selected library cannot fail to stimulate the

interest, when the pupils are encouraged to refer to it, and directed how to use it.

In earlier days, not only was the school room bare and uninviting, but the school yard was small and unattractive. The boys ranged far and wide seeking for objects of interest, especially in orchards where juicy apples were known to grow, and along brooks where the trout lay in shady pools. It seldom occurred to teachers to set up counter attractions in the school yard itself. Shade trees, school gardens, and apparatus for games were not thought of as factors in education. These interest children and, to that extent, have an educational value.

Moreover, interested children are really self-governing children. The teacher needs only to direct the energies of his pupils profitably in order to avoid many of the difficulties of so-called discipline. Work of the right kind is in itself the best means of discipline, and the best substitute for the punishment, which, under the name of discipline, used to be so prevalent.

The child should have a sympathetic attitude towards his fellow workers; that is, the inclination of each pupil should be to help, not to hinder, the others. Too often such a keen spirit of rivalry exists that one pupil is apt to rejoice when another is in difficulty. The teacher should strive to foster a friendly feeling and should discourage everything that tends to destroy it. This phase of school management will be discussed in a later chapter.

When there is a noticeable lack of the "at home" feeling in the class room, the progress of the school is retarded, the discipline is impaired, and pupils become troublesome. The "at home" feeling is, accordingly, very important, and the lack of it is more detrimental than most teachers realize.

DESIRE FOR IMPROVEMENT

Every teacher should hold as part of his creed a belief in boys and girls—"the men and women of a great to-morrow." Practically all Canadian boys and girls wish to do right, and to please their teacher and their elders. In general, they strive, more or less consciously, to improve. There are, no doubt, boys and girls who are troublesome, mischievous, exasperating, thoughtless, cruel, untruthful; but these children are usually the products of evil training. Some teachers set up a higher standard for boys and girls in school than for themselves; they think that because a boy plays truant, and lies about it, takes marbles from other boys, robs orchards, destroys school property, and fights, that he is hopelessly depraved. But many a boy has committed some or all of these offences and yet attained a fair degree of respectability in after life, because he found a teacher who believed in his desire for, and power to attain, a better self. The bad boy or girl has, in most cases, been made so largely by his or her environment, and such bad boys and girls can be transformed, not by harsh treatment in the schools, but by sympathetic guidance and help towards the development of their higher qualities, towards the realization of that better self which strives for the mastery in every human being. Corporal punishment of itself will not cure evil habits, such as truancy, dishonesty, or cigarette smoking, although it may have a deterrent effect in the case of others who have not formed the habits. Sympathetic talks on the results of the evil habits, or a new interest in life, are the best means for effecting reform. Many have never been cured at all, and have gone to join the ranks of the permanently unfit, because they have never met a sympathetic teacher or friend. Contrast the two following cases:

Case 1. A boy, fifteen years of age, was a confirmed truant, in spite of severe punishment administered by his father and the teacher. Colour work was introduced into the school. This boy had much undeveloped artistic ability. He never played truant again, but devoted himself to his school work, and eventually became a good citizen. This new interest transformed him.

Case 2. A boy of nine years was sullen and unresponsive in nature, and a persistent truant. His mother was a poor widow who had to earn her own living, and could not give him the attention he required. One teacher, by taking special interest in him, secured regular attendance. When promoted and placed under a teacher who took no special interest in him, he lapsed into truancy again, and had finally to be placed in charge of a society for the rescue and aid of unmanageable children.

In all cases, then, we believe that the normal boy or girl desires to improve, and that the teacher should not only represent that improved self, but should sympathetically aid the child in his struggle for self-improvement. The more disadvantageous the home conditions, the more sympathy must be forthcoming from the teacher, who should not become discouraged if improvement should be very slow.

EFFORT TO IMPROVE

The child must put forth effort to improve. Good intentions that are not supplemented by effort to realize them will never bring him nearer the desired goal. Without persistent effort on the part of the child, the teacher's admonition and aid, however wisely directed, will prove unavailing. The teacher's function is to suggest, and to point the way, by both precept and example, but the

child must progress through his own effort, stimulated by the sympathetic encouragement of the judicious teacher.

There is no royal road to learning. Nothing worth while is accomplished without effort. The *School Helps* that are intended to smooth the pathway to knowledge, may become hindrances to the acquisition of real knowledge, and positively injurious to intellectual vigour. The teacher's aim should be, not to make a difficult subject easy, but to arouse such an intense desire for knowledge that the pupil will bring to bear on it all his powers of intellect, until he wins the victory. Too often, the teacher destroys, rather than creates, interest and effort, by smoothing away all difficulties. Children find a pleasure in overcoming difficulties; teachers should therefore refrain from supplying explanations of questions, the answers to which lie well within the pupils' grasp. They should rather exhibit a belief in their pupils' ability to solve their own difficulties. Interest in the end, and faith in one's own powers to attain it, will secure all the effort that is needed for successful accomplishment.

FORMATION OF GOOD HABITS

The characteristics thus far named—health, interest, desire for improvement, accompanied by effort—should tend towards the formation of good habits; otherwise all teaching is in vain. A healthy child is very likely to form good physical habits, since his exuberance of spirits will find an outlet in the activities that make for physical efficiency. If a strong interest is aroused in correct expression, the child's habits of speech ought to be rapidly improved. Desire for a better state and effort to attain it, must of necessity improve the child's conduct. This better state will always be represented by some person whom the child knows and respects.

Habit is a sort of physical memory. It preserves experience for future use, saves time and energy, and secures more efficient work. Thus, when a child has learned to form a letter or a figure correctly, the power acquired should be made habitual as quickly as possible. Habits of cleanliness, punctuality, quietness, honesty, courtesy, accuracy, perseverance, and industry, should be well developed by the time a child reaches the age of fourteen or fifteen. The period from eight to twelve or thirteen years of age is recognized as the best in which to form habits. Neglect to form good habits during this period will necessarily interfere with efficient work in the years that follow. The teacher should consider the bearing of these facts upon the cultivation of good habits of reading, writing, accuracy in arithmetic, and all other activities, during this most favourable habit-forming period.

Habits are constantly being formed whether child and teacher are conscious of the process or not. But good habits are the product of purposeful effort. Bad habits are usually the result of carelessness or of unfavourable environment. Teachers should not neglect to pass critical and searching judgments upon their own habits: "Am I punctual? Am I courteous? Am I honest?" and so on, down the list of virtues.

FREEDOM

Canada is often referred to, in speech and song, as the home of the free. If this claim is to be more than an empty phrase, the self-activity of the children in our schools, as free agents, must be developed. This does not mean that a school should be uncontrolled, but rather that there should be the highest kind of control; that is, self-control. It is conceded, of course, that external con-

trol must predominate in the early years of school life; but there should be, from year to year, an increased reliance upon the development of the child's powers of self-control.

Even in the earliest stages, it is possible to secure self-direction of activity. Indeed, there is often much more self-direction and self-expression in the Kindergarten than in the grades. In all grades, as the stage of mental development will permit, opportunity for self-direction of activity should be provided; in constructive work, by allowing the pupils to make things suggested by their own needs; in composition, by allowing them to choose their own topics; in literature, by dramatizing; and in nature study, by planting and caring for their own gardens. There is not much danger of any teacher putting too much stress on self-activity. The danger is that all the work will be rigidly prescribed according to the wishes of the teacher, influenced by the requirements of the Course of Study. Even when the teacher decides upon the course of action that the pupils should follow, it is advisable to secure their acquiescence in the decision. If, for example, pupils who destroy school property are required to repair it or to pay for it, the matter might be submitted to the whole school, or to a class committee, for an expression of their judgment or a suggestion of an alternative penalty. If the offence should occur again, the teacher needs only to refer to what has been agreed upon, and to state that he expects the offender to act in accordance with that decision. Talking in class must be suppressed. The desire to express one's self, however, should be satisfied to as great a degree as possible in the regular work of the class. Each pupil in the class (and especially those who show a tendency to talk) should be called upon to answer frequently.

TREATMENT OF ABNORMAL CONDITIONS

In addition to what has been said on the conditions essential to ensure efficient instruction for the normal child, a word about the abnormal child is necessary. On the one hand, there is the precocious child, the nascent genius; on the other, the backward child in varying grades —slow, dull, incompetent, defective, imbecile, idiot. The adolescent child, too, offers another problem which awaits solution. The fact that these pupils are exceptional implies that they need special treatment.

The first difficulty in dealing with such pupils is to determine the exact amount of difference between them and the normal child. While the ordinary work of the school will make apparent the varying abilities of normal children, more definite tests are needed in order to determine exactly the difference between the normal and the precocious child, on the one hand, and between the normal and the backward child, on the other. It is now generally agreed that the imbecile and the idiot should be cared for in special schools or institutions. Pupils who are classed as slow or dull, and pupils who show deficiency in acquiring the mastery of a subject, such as spelling, must be dealt with individually, or in small groups.

The changes which take place at adolescence make the children of this age a special school problem. The passing from the formative period—from eight to twelve years of age—to the adolescent period is a veritable second birth. More depends upon careful supervision and instruction in the first years of adolescence than at any other age. Parents and teachers need to combine their forces in order to pilot the boy and the girl safely through this trying period to healthy manhood and

womanhood. In preparation for such work, we should try to understand the peculiarities of this age:

1. It is an age of rapid physical growth, which makes large demands upon the available energy of the individual.

2. Sexual distinctions, both physical and mental, now appear so marked that the boy reveals quite a different individuality from that of the girl.

3. The social consciousness develops. The adult attitude towards society and social conditions is rapidly assumed. One effect of this is that the boy and the girl now choose companions among those older than themselves. They wish to be considered older than they are, and to be treated as adults. They resent repressive measures, but are responsive to appeals to honour and reason, and to the sympathetic companionship of teacher and parent.

4. At no time are children so idealistic as during this period. Of this their taste for imaginative literature is a proof. The boy revels in stories of travel and adventure; the girl builds castles in the air, and takes delight in love stories.

5. Adolescents are erratic; one day hopeful and energetic, the next, despondent and inactive; they are capable of continuous vigorous effort, both mental and physical, only to be followed by a period of comparative inactivity. This is especially true of the boy who is naturally energetic, while the girl, being inclined to conserve her energy, is not subject to such marked contrasts.

These characteristics, and others of a similar nature, which are most marked at the period of adolescence, lead us to conclude that, for adolescents, there should be a relaxation of mental work; corporal punishment should rarely, or never, be used; they should be allowed to bear a fair share of responsibility, and to take an active part in the school organization. At this period, and afterwards, boys should be in charge of a man teacher, and girls in charge of a woman teacher; different standards should be used in classifying boys and girls; for example, in arithmetic, a higher standard for boys, and in literature, a higher standard for girls.

CHAPTER V

THE TEACHER

GENERAL REQUIREMENTS

In order to guide aright the child's activities the teacher must have attained an advanced stage of mental development. He must know the process through which he attained that stage. He must know a good deal about the mind of the child and the course of its development. He must also know the present social conditions and, to some extent, the trend of changes in society, because he has to prepare the child for efficient service in a society of some years hence. Finally, he must be able to stimulate and direct the effort of the child, step by step, towards the highest possible state of development. These requirements demand academic and professional training, the standard of which is determined by the Department of Education.

This standard has undergone many changes in the past, and must still undergo changes from time to time to meet changing conditions. The general advance in the standards of society must be met by a corresponding advance in the standards of the teacher. As a short term of six weeks' professional training has gradually been extended to a year's term, so in time the period of training may be further lengthened to meet advancing educational standards. "What is and what has been can never reveal what ought to be: the standard must be created and set up in advance of anything realized. What ought to be is the paramount question. The real must continually yield to the ideal."

SCHOLARSHIP

The difficulties and responsibilities of the teacher's work demand careful preparation for it. That the teacher must have an academic standing considerably superior to that of the child is justified by the well-known principle that a situation is understood only when all its relations are clearly comprehended. This may be illustrated by reference to multiplication. Elementary multiplication is related not only to the lower process of addition, but also to the higher processes of compound multiplication and multiplication of fractions, and to multiplication of algebraic terms. Every one acquires a much clearer understanding of elementary multiplication after studying algebra. Or again, learning to multiply in the duodecimal system throws a flood of light upon the ordinary decimal system.

It is not an unusual experience to find teachers of lower qualifications claiming that their experience more than compensates for the higher qualifications of other teachers with less experience. Indeed, teachers of lower qualifications have been known to refuse persistently to make any effort towards securing higher qualifications, because such action would be tantamount to admitting their present inferiority. In the end, such teachers are always forced to take the lowest places or to retire from the profession.

It is held by such teachers that the instructor who is just in advance of his pupils is the best fitted for his duties because he realizes better the difficulties that beset the road to learning. But the only way that a teacher, whether his qualifications be high or low, can fully appreciate the difficulties of the learner is to be a learner him-

self. In no better way can the teacher appreciate the position of the child in preparing for an examination than by preparing for one himself.

The denial of the need of special preparation for teaching involves the theory that the teacher with the higher qualifications is no better than the one with the lower. Teachers should concede superiority to those who hold higher qualifications than themselves, because in that way only can they uphold the dignity of their profession, and maintain their own position in the face of claims put forward by those still less qualified than themselves.

This recalls the old dispute over the maxim: "The teacher is born, not made." The truth that emerges from this somewhat specious maxim is that some individuals learn the art of teaching more readily than others; but knowledge of so complex an art cannot be inherited any more than knowledge of medicine or of law. The study of the principles of teaching will improve any teacher: no teacher is so perfect that he cannot be improved by training. Unqualified belief in the maxim is fatal to the progress of the one who holds it.

The chief value of the teacher with high qualifications is revealed in the greater ambition which such a teacher can arouse in the mind of the learner. Before the pupil is ready to put forth the effort which is so essential to progress, he must feel a great difference between his present state and that which he is to reach. The teacher may be said to "set the pace" for his pupils in present endeavour as well as in future attainment. There should be no hesitation in condemning Jacotot's claim that it is possible to teach what we do not know. It is possible for us to urge others to learn what we do not know, but if they do so, we are not their teachers. The teacher

must have gone over the ground in order to guide his pupils aright.

As the race is gradually progressing to higher and higher intellectual levels, the standard of attainment for teachers must also be advanced to keep pace with it. Owing to the rapid change in educational standards to which ready adjustment should always be made, the plan of requiring every teacher to do a definite amount of professional reading each year is commendable. Progressive teachers, of course, do not need to be urged to do this work. There are others, however, who will not keep up their professional reading and study unless required to do so. While in school, the pupil is stimulated by the example of the teacher and the requirements of the course and, unless some incentive is supplied in the case of the teacher, it is natural for him to lapse into a state of contented self-satisfaction.

HEALTH

Before being admitted to the training schools, a candidate has to present a certificate of health. Thus, at the outset, the educational authorities emphasize the fact that health is a necessary condition to carrying on the work of teaching. This implies that he should continue to care for his health while teaching. The following directions in regard to health should be followed by the teacher:

1. He should observe the established hygienic laws of cleanliness of person.
2. He should wear clean linen and well-brushed clothing.
3. He should keep in the open air as much as possible, spending at least an hour a day in outdoor exercise.

4 He should learn to rest. There are certain periods during which rest is much more necessary than at other times. These periods will be discussed in connection with the consideration of fatigue.

5. He should sleep in a well-ventilated room seven or eight hours out of every twenty-four. It is robbing the next day if this rule is not observed.

6. He should seek congenial society in the neighbourhood and take part in social functions which do not interfere with his daily duties.

7. He should avoid the use of drugs, liquor, and tobacco.

8. He should breathe properly, especially while talking and reading.

9. He should not talk too much while teaching, nor in too high a key. In cold weather, for some minutes after going out of doors, he should not use his voice, as the sudden change from warm to cold air (when the throat is congested by recent talking), may lead to affections of the throat.

10. He should take every possible precaution against dust in the school room, especially that which arises from cleaning the black-board.

11. He should remember that the mind has a great influence upon the body, and should be cheerful and optimistic.

12. He should use his vacations wisely. A complete change of environment for a month is very desirable.

INFLUENCE

The teacher must exhibit that better self towards which the pupil's aim is directed. Whether he wishes it or not, he will always exert a marked influence upon his pupils' characters, because imitation is a law of social life. In fact, one is not worthy of the name of teacher who does not direct the child towards the desirable moral goal, as well as towards the desirable mental goal. Moreover, the teacher should recognize that of these two goals the moral is the more difficult of attainment.

The distinction of sex needs consideration. There is a marked difference between the masculine and the feminine mind. The boy entering the adolescent age cannot fail to recognize that the woman teacher cannot represent the ideal toward which he is striving. Consequently, it would be better if the adolescent boy were taught by a man teacher; the same argument applies to the adolescent girl, but it is more urgent in the boy's case, because the association between the boy and his father is usually less close than that between the girl and her mother.

The highest moral influence which can be exerted by one individual upon another is effected by:

1. Devoting one's self to the interests of others
2. Exemplifying the principles that underlie morality
3. Suggesting lines of conduct, directly and indirectly, as portrayed in literature
4. Insisting upon right action, even though the underlying moral principles are not yet understood.

ENTHUSIASM

The teacher should be capable of arousing his pupils to their best effort. Enthusiasm begets enthusiasm. If the teacher is a learner himself, he will inspire his pupils to learn. If he has high ideals, he will create a great desire in his pupils to attain them; if he has sympathy, he will encourage his pupils to continue their efforts.

The teacher should not pose as an encyclopædic source of knowledge, but should take the attitude of a learner with learners. A teacher's honest admission of his present inability to accomplish a certain task—for example, the classification of a flower—will give opportunity for combined effort. That there are facts which a teacher should know thoroughly is, of course, self-evident; to admit ignorance of them would be to lose the confidence of his pupils.

Probably all that the laggard in our school needs is a spur to effort. The teacher should discover the means of arousing this effort. He should welcome the laggard and the so-called bad boy, because with them he has a chance to demonstrate his ability as a teacher who believes that persistent effort will overcome difficulties and is the foundation of mental progress. No teacher who takes this view of difficulties will ever be discouraged by them.

Perhaps the chief function of the teacher in relation to effort is to establish in the child's mind a belief in the possibility of his attaining the end towards which effort is being directed. If interest in the end has been aroused to the point of desiring it, belief in the possibility of attainment is the only remaining factor. Hence, the teacher must encourage his pupils, direct their efforts, and stimulate their activities.

The teacher should place more stress on the standing of the pupil in relation to his former standing than in relation to the best member of the class. The child who makes an advance from forty to fifty per cent. in a month should be commended more than the one who makes an advance from sixty to sixty-five per cent. Ordinarily, the latter receives the higher commendation. If a pupil loses ground and still remains at the head of his class, he may be chided for not doing his best, instead of being commended for standing at the head. In order to lead pupils to put forth their best efforts a better basis of rating than that in common use is needed. Positive advance, not relative standing, should be emphasized. In the moral sphere, "Virtue consists not in being good, but in becoming better."

RELATION TO THE CHILD

Having stated in the last chapter the essential conditions tending to the efficiency of the child, it is now neces-

sary to consider the qualifications of the teacher which will aid in securing and maintaining these conditions. His main duties will consist in:

1. Caring for the health of the pupils
2. Arousing and sustaining their interest
3. Maintaining the co-operation of the school group
4. Representing the better self of the child
5. Stimulating the child to his best effort
6. Directing the child in the formation of good habits
7. Protecting the child's freedom.

CARING FOR THE HEALTH OF THE CHILD

The importance of the teacher's duty in this respect demands so extensive a treatment that the next two chapters will be devoted to it. At this point, therefore, it is only necessary to emphasize the fact that the teacher should give constant attention to the care of his pupils' health. In his preparation for the work of teaching, the teacher should familiarize himself with the facts of physiology and the laws of hygiene and sanitation, so that he can detect the first symptoms of ill-health among his pupils, instruct them in the care of their bodies, and maintain healthful conditions in and about the school. At present the teacher's knowledge of these facts and laws is quite inadequate. In many cases there is almost criminal neglect in the practical application of such knowledge. Good health, in both teachers and pupils, is a necessary condition of efficiency.

AROUSING AND SUSTAINING INTEREST

The teacher must arouse the interest of the child. Forty pupils mean forty different beings to interest. The teacher must appeal to each of the varied interests of his

pupils and, consequently, must have varied interests himself. This requires constant study on his part, as well as much contact with people and things. He should read the newspapers in order to become familiar with interesting current events. He should be familiar with the world's best literature, especially that which appeals to children. He should study children, supplementing observations of his own pupils with a study of the best books and periodicals on this subject. Only by these means can the teacher keep himself in sympathy with child life, and at the same time improve his own mind.

Teachers should travel enough to become familiar with the conditions existing in parts of the country different from their own. If the teacher lives in a rural community, he should spend part of his vacation in a city; if in a city, he should spend most of his vacation in a country district. If travelling can be combined with visiting schools, so much the better.

The teacher needs to know his pupils individually in order to arouse their interests. The child on the playground and at home is a different individual in many ways from the child in school. Even the presence of the teacher is apt to make the child for the time being an artificial creature. But, after the strangeness has worn off, it is quite possible to see the child as he really is; and, hence, the teacher should often play with his pupils and visit them in their homes.

Nature-study trips are excellent for revealing the real nature of the child and of the teacher too. It is just as important that the child should know the teacher as that the teacher should know the child. Such mutual knowledge is a necessary condition of that co-operation and unity of purpose and interests which are essential to the

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best progress towards the desired end. Only through such revealing intimacies can the teacher interpret acts which, on the surface, seem to be due to disobedience or to obstinacy. They may be due to conditions that may have escaped the notice of the teacher, as illustrated by the two following cases:

Case 1. A girl, fourteen years of age, used to come into school very noisily. The teacher interpreted this as wilful disturbance, condemned it publicly, insisted on repetition of the entrance, usually without improvement. The real cause was a lack of co-ordination of nerves and muscles, due to rapid growth during the adolescent stage.

Case 2. A boy refused to go to the black-board when requested to do so by the teacher. He was sent to the Principal's room, where, after a sympathetic talk, he stated that his refusal was due to the quite unpresentable state of his shoes.

The teacher must always keep in view the all-round development of the child. While it is desirable that he should know the child's home conditions and his past history, a knowledge of these should in no way affect his attitude to the child, except in so far as it may assist him to direct the child to a better self than he has yet realized. The teacher should look ahead a few years and see the boy a skilled artisan, a business man, a professional man; the girl a teacher, a housekeeper, a mother. The teacher should keep these possibilities in mind and set high ideals before the pupils, so that they may creditably fill their respective stations in life.

In order to arouse the child's interest in school, the teacher must really love his work and show an interest in it. Teaching has frequently been made a target for criticism, because of the supposed monotonous, "gradgrind"

nature of the work. Teachers have been asked if it were not tiresome to be meeting the same children day after day, teaching the same subjects, and often repeating the same work year in and year out. Many a teacher has, no doubt, expressed sympathy with this view, but such teachers have failed to grasp the true significance of real teaching. The true teacher becomes tired, of course, like other people, but not from the causes mentioned. There is much similarity, and often much sameness in the day-to-day and year-to-year interests and occupations of most people by whom the world's work is being accomplished. In fact, the tramp, and perhaps, the idle rich, probably furnish the best examples of life with great variety of experience from day to day.

No one with a genuine interest in his work is ever heard to complain of its monotony. The teacher should know, and should lead his pupils to realize, that work which is noble in itself may be made menial by being approached in a menial spirit, and that commonplace duties may be elevated to a plane of dignity when done in the spirit of Gareth, King Arthur's knight, who "wrought all kind of service with a noble ease that graced the lowliest act in doing it." This is the spirit that gives dignity to labour. The teacher who is imbued with this spirit may sometimes find his work tiresome, but never monotonous, and will return to school after vacation with the same zest with which he entered upon his vacation.

Again, members of the teaching profession are too ready to become discouraged and to take up some other work. There ought to be considerable hesitation in changing from one line of work to another, after having developed sufficient skill in it to feel confident of success. In fact, the greatest reward that can possibly come to any

one who has a true conception of his work is to be found in his greater ability to serve society. Few teachers stay long enough in the profession to experience this reward, or learn to do their work in such a manner as to perform it with the greatest efficiency.

MAINTAINING CO-OPERATION

The teacher is responsible for the maintenance of co-operation among the units of the school society. To perform this function properly he must have faith in the child; that is, he must believe in the possibility of the ordinary child attaining the end for which the school is organized. The teacher should believe that the normal child naturally seeks a better self, and he should exhibit sympathy for the difficulties that face the child in its effort to attain its purpose. The daily routine of school life tends, however, to crush out sympathy. To avoid this, the teacher needs to maintain an active interest in what interests the child, and to come in contact with the parents and the children in the home.

The unity of the school organization depends, in the second place, upon the self-control of the teacher, his sympathy, and consistent example. As the leader of the school group, the teacher must control its work, and must, therefore, be able to control himself. He should be patient in dealing with his pupil's shortcomings, and persevering in carrying the work of the school to a successful issue. He should be punctual in beginning every recitation, as well as in opening and closing the school. He should be accurate in all statements of fact and correct in his use of language. He should also show himself a master of all the subjects he is required to teach. In

addition, good manners are a necessary qualification of the teacher, for in the school, perhaps even more than elsewhere, courtesy begets courtesy.

The teacher should be a discoverer. In order to fill this requirement, he should study children, try different methods of teaching, and modify his classification, as soon as he discovers defects in it. If he cannot be such a discoverer, he can, at least, test what others claim to be a discovery. Many educational questions are awaiting an answer, such as: How many hours a day can a child profitably spend in school? What should be the maximum length of a session for children under eight years of age? How many children can be taught in one class economically? It requires the experienced and observant teacher to discover the correct answers to these questions.

The teacher should always use tact and good judgment in dealing with cases of discipline. It is a common experience of principals that their chief troubles in administration arise, not so much from the negligence or misconduct of pupils, as from want of tact and judgment on the part of assistants, of whom there are apt to be one or more in a school that lack common sense in dealing with pupils. There is a trinity of qualifications that must be the abiding possession of every successful teacher —scholarship, teaching power, and common sense, and the greatest of these is common sense.

THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO HABIT-FORMING

Two important functions of the school are the correction of bad habits and the formation of good ones. The Science of Education deals with the nature and rules of habit formation, and it remains for the teacher to make the practical application. Here is an outline of the pro-

cedure for the establishment of the habit of punctuality. The first step is to show the pupils the need of punctuality. In addition to the loss of time to the pupil who is late, the whole school is disturbed when he enters. A reference to loss of time when working for pay by the hour will show how punctuality is regarded in business. In running trains, punctuality may prevent wrecks and save the lives of many passengers. The second step consists in making up one's mind to form the habit. Ask all the pupils to promise that they will try to be punctual, and to decide in their own minds to carry out this promise. The third step is to seize every opportunity for the practice of the habit, and to allow no exceptions to occur until the habit is established. This means that there must be daily reminders of the promise, and perhaps the addition of some incentives of a natural kind, such as interesting opening lessons. Those who are punctual should be commended, and, of course, the teacher should himself be a pattern of punctuality, not only in arriving at school, but in beginning each lesson, and in closing the school. Continued breaches of this virtue may require disciplinary measures, which will be treated in a later chapter.

In forming some habits it is possible to assist the process by what James has named "gratuitous practice"; that is, practice for the mere purpose of forming a habit. Thus, in arithmetic, certain examples may be given for the purpose of securing accuracy. In order to form the habit of moving quietly, the pupils may be asked to practise marching about the room quietly. All the school routine should become habituated by practice, until it goes on from day to day with machine-like precision.

But the teacher has also to reform the habits of his pupils, a much more difficult task than that of forming good habits, since there is the resistance offered by the old

habit. The same steps must be followed, but, in addition, the conditions must be made very favourable for forming the new habit and unfavourable for continuing the old. In correcting the habit of speaking indistinctly, the correct habit of distinct speaking should be impressed upon the pupil by calling his attention to some good examples. It should also be pointed out to him that distinct speaking in class, on the telephone, and in the shop saves time and avoids misunderstanding. Favourable conditions include a proper position while speaking, and the absence of disturbing noises or repressive influences of any kind. Improvement should be commended, but whenever the pupil reverts to his old habit of speaking indistinctly, the teacher should condemn it, and require the repetition of what is said, until it is properly expressed. As in forming habits, every opportunity should be seized for practice, and no exceptions should be allowed.

THE CHILD'S FREEDOM TO BE PROTECTED

The teacher and the parents are inclined to think that their chief duty in relation to the child's freedom is to restrict it, because in their opinion the child's natural tendency is to take too much freedom. For example: children on a good school ground, provided with flower beds, are apt to run through these rather than around them. This tendency may be dealt with in various ways: the beds may be protected by wire guards; the pupils may be forbidden to play in that part of the yard; they may be punished for running through them; or the beds may be removed entirely. None of these methods of treatment protect the freedom of the child; they restrict it. In the last instance a purely negative condition is established, since the opportunity either to restrict or to direct freedom no longer exists.

But the case may be dealt with in other ways. We may secure the pupils' co-operation in planting the beds, and in that way ensure their protection of them. We may appeal to their love of flowers, to their desire for an attractive playground, or to their sense of duty in caring for property. We may ask the pupils as a personal favour not to harm the beds. By any of these modes of dealing with the situation, we may lead the pupils to place a restriction upon their own conduct in relation to these beds. If they do this, and continue to play around the beds without damaging them in any way, except by accident, the freedom of the pupils is protected. They have performed an act of self-government. In addition to securing the protection of the beds they have acquired the power of adjusting themselves to existing circumstances, and they have thus far been educated.

Teachers err more frequently, however, in dealing with another class of activities, as when the pupils are striving to accomplish some end; for example, the painting of a flower, the solution of a problem, or the expression of a thought in oral reading. The teacher frequently comes too readily to the assistance of the pupil, and finishes the painting or the solution, thus hindering the development of the pupil's power of self-expression. But there are teachers who respect and protect the freedom of their pupils by encouraging them to do their own work in art, arithmetic, language, or other subjects. Every child has the right to freedom of effort, unassisted by the well-meaning teacher. The result will be a citizen with power of initiative and of perseverance in the face of difficulties. Such a citizen is a more efficient member of society than the one who lacks these qualities, however proficient he may be in other ways.

Among the many complaints from various sources regarding the work of graduates from all kinds of educational institutions, none are so common as "lack of independence, originality, and power to proceed in new work without detailed instructions." Graduates are trained to do what they are told, not to decide what they ought to do under certain conditions. This results in the production of mere automatons and imitators. Can this be changed to any great extent? It can, but there must be a marked change in the management and in the teaching. Pupils must take an active share in the management of the activities of the school, as explained in Chapter I, and the method of teaching must follow the lines indicated in Chapter II. The emphasis must be transferred from learning to doing, from memorizing to thinking, from learning what others have done, in situations no longer existent, to planning what ought to be done in the situations which have to be met from day to day.

THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO PARENTS AND OTHERS

Since the teacher is a part of the social group, he must associate himself with the other members of that group; and since the pupils are organized into a school through the desire of the parents, as expressed by their representatives, the trustees, it follows that the teacher must keep in close touch with these parties to the contract. Association between teacher and parents promotes mutual confidence.

A great advantage would be gained in school administration, if all concerned—teacher, pupils, parents, trustees—were brought to look upon the school as upon a business or industrial enterprise, in which the parents may be regarded as shareholders, the trustees as directors, the teacher as manager, and the educated pupils as the finished

product. Of course, the analogy will not hold in every particular. The teacher is not fashioning inert matter into other forms which must still remain inert, but is dealing with active mental and spiritual forces which must be controlled and developed. Acting upon this view of the school, parents would see that their children are punctual and regular in attendance, except for reasons which would be considered valid in a warehouse or factory; and pupils would be prepared to do their work in a satisfactory manner, or to take the consequences, as in a business institution.

The teacher should be a member of some local organization in which he will be on the same footing as those who employ him. He should connect himself with such movements as the organizing of a public library, a literary society, a horticultural society.

It is important that the teacher and the inspector should co-operate for the welfare of the school. The inspector should do more than report to the trustees and to the Department of Education upon the work of the teacher. He should be a fellow-worker as well as an adviser and a critic. Then, again, the teacher should be perfectly frank with the inspector. There are teachers who do not tell the whole truth about the work of their schools, especially about those subjects upon which there is no final written examination. This want of frankness often has serious consequences, disturbing to the harmonious working of the educational system, which is based upon mutual confidence and co-operation.

The lack of either honesty or of frankness reacts upon one's fellow teachers. So long as a few teachers continue to deceive, there will not be freedom in the profession. Written examinations are necessary, largely because a few teachers give certificates when the work is unsatisfactory,

and thus promote the unfit. The ideal condition would be the abolition of final written examinations for purposes of promotion, which would then be made mainly on standing secured in term-work; but as a prerequisite to the adoption of such a plan there must be not only honesty on the part of the teacher, but also good judgment, which all teachers do not possess.

TEACHER'S CODE OF ETHICS

No profession can really exist without a code of ethics to guide the conduct of its members. Doctors, lawyers, and clergymen have their ethical codes, but teachers can scarcely be said to have such a code. Until they have developed a professional spirit which is characterized by loyalty to the recognized ethical standards, they cannot rank with the learned professions.

Until such a code is established teachers should observe the following conventions:

Never apply for a position until assured that it is vacant.

Do not compete for a position by offering to teach at a lower salary than that paid the previous teacher, or by underbidding other applicants.

Defend a fellow teacher against unfounded accusations, and consider him innocent until he is proved guilty.

When assured that a fellow teacher is incompetent and unworthy of the profession, cease to defend him.

Be perfectly frank with superiors and with subordinates.

Do not gauge the amount of the work to be done by the amount of your salary. A teacher is always under contract to do his best no matter what his salary may be. Only when he has done this can he claim to have earned his salary. The richest reward of labour is the power to do more and better work.

Put the child first, just as a lawyer puts his client first. The ultimate good of the child must be the controlling factor in the teacher's action.

Never be satisfied with your attainments; be a stern critic of yourself.

Strive in every legitimate way to maintain the dignity of your profession, and always be ready to co-operate with your fellow-teachers in this regard, even when you are not personally benefited.

Keep your contract, whether verbal or written. If a better position is offered you before your contract expires, place the matter frankly before your board of trustees, and, if you wish to accept the position, ask to be freed from your contract. If this request is refused, you should cheerfully finish the term of your contract and do faithful work to the end.

CHAPTER VI

THE CARE OF THE CHILD

THE TEACHER'S RESPONSIBILITY

THE teacher must bear a large share of responsibility for the conditions at school that affect the health of his pupils. No neglect is more serious, and none is more common, than failure to attend to the sanitation of the school and its surroundings, to the lighting, to the seating, to physical exercises and suitable recreation of the pupils, and to their safety in case of fire. Yet it is only by strict attention to such matters that really efficient work can be secured.

SANITATION

Under this head are included the temperature and humidity of the air in the room, the ventilation, the water supply, the cleanliness of the building, yard, and the outhouses, and the protection of the children from contagious diseases. These topics will be considered with a view to giving teachers a working knowledge of what can and ought to be done in each case in the average school.

TEMPERATURE AND VENTILATION

Every class room should be provided with two or more standard Fahrenheit thermometers. One of these should be hung on an inner wall at each end of the room, away from the direct influence of incoming warmed air or of radiant heat, at such a height that the usual reading, 68°, should be on a level with the eye. When the ther-

mometer is located in this position, errors in reading are not so likely to be made. The minimum temperature permissible is 64°F, though this will generally be found too low.

It is not a simple problem to keep the temperature of the class room between 64° and 68° at all times. Open fire-places, stoves, hot-air furnaces, hot-water and steam systems, are the modes of heating. A brief consideration of each of these will include a reference to their ventilating accompaniments, but, before dealing with this matter, we may profitably consider what can be done in

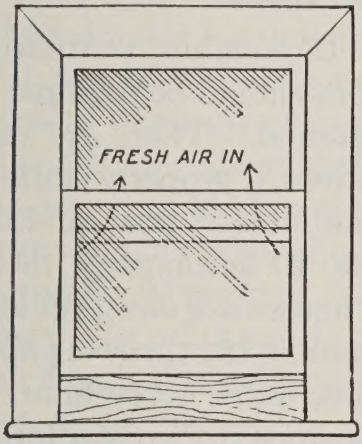

FIG. 1.—Lower sash raised. Board placed under it. Air enters between sashes.

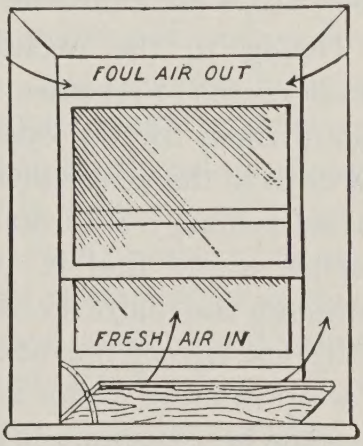

FIG. 2.—Adjustable sloping board to deflect incoming air upwards. Upper sash lowered; lower sash raised.

the absence of any special means of ventilation, that is, with a school building containing the usual number of doors and windows. In every school room the windows should be thrown open for a few minutes every hour, and at recesses. If the lower sash only is movable, several windows should have boards, six inches or more wide, made to fit under the sash, thereby holding them up and at the same time preventing draughts. The space between the upper and lower sash will then admit a considerable volume of air, as shown in Figure 1. If the upper

sash is movable, several windows should be lowered one or two inches on the lee side of the room, thus providing means of ingress and egress of air. Except in mild weather, when all windows should be thrown open, at any rate from the top, windows on opposite sides of the room should not be opened at the same time. A very satisfactory device is shown in Figure 2; a slanting board is placed so that it can be adjusted to deflect the incoming air upward. Doors should be provided with some form of stop. A wedge, inserted under the door to hold it open at any desired angle, will serve the purpose, but automatic stops are available at little expense.

Owing to the necessity of thoroughly ventilating school rooms at recesses, the pupils should be required to vacate them for the open playground. There are very few days in the year when all children, if properly clothed, cannot remain out of doors ten minutes at least, and the teacher would find it profitable to accompany them. Although the majority of school houses are now provided with some special means of ventilation, the throwing open of windows and doors is quite necessary every hour, as even the best systems do not always operate satisfactorily.

Great danger arises from too high a temperature and a vitiated atmosphere in school rooms. Exact tests may be made by any teacher to test the air in the class room, the simplest being the lime water test. For this test a ten-ounce bottle and a half ounce of lime water are needed. Fill the bottle with water and take it to that part of the room where the air is to be tested, and then empty the bottle. Pour the half ounce of lime water into the bottle, cork it, and shake vigorously for some time, so that any carbon dioxide in the bottle will be throughly dissolved in the lime water. If the lime water becomes at all milky or turbid, the amount of car-

bon dioxide in the room is sufficient to be injurious to health.

For each unit volume of air that enters a room an equal volume must pass out, so that an outlet must be provided. An open window on the lee side of the building will serve the purpose, but such a provision is extravagant and creates draughts. Moreover, the average teacher is forgetful, and the school should be provided with an automatic system of ventilation.

Every teacher should bear in mind the following important facts relating to ventilation:

Each pupil exhales approximately half a cubic foot of carbon dioxide every hour. The volume of carbon dioxide in normal air is .04 per cent. Air becomes injurious to health when the volume of carbon dioxide in it exceeds .07 per cent. Therefore the volume of carbon dioxide that may be added to normal air is .03 per cent.; that is, the amount of carbon dioxide that each pupil exhales must not exceed .03 per cent. of the total volume of air supplied to him. In other words, .03 per cent. of the total volume of air supplied to each pupil is one-half cubic foot. From these data, the volume of air that must be supplied to each pupil may be calculated. It is 1,666⅔ cubic feet an hour, or 27⅔ cubic feet a minute. Sanitary experts place the volume required for each pupil at 30 cubic feet a minute. On this basis, the air in a room 30 x 13 x 25 feet, containing forty people, should be changed once every eight minutes.

The testing of ventilating systems has demonstrated that the best course for incoming air to take is to rise to the ceiling, then fall, carrying the foul air through an outlet near the floor. It is better to have the outlet on the same side as the inlet, because in that case the pure air circulates through every part of the room. The outlet

should lead into a shaft in which the air is moving upwards. Thus there will be a current of fresh air entering the room, circulating through all its parts, and passing out through the foul air shaft. This may be seen by comparing the complete circulation shown in Figure 3 with the incomplete circulation shown in Figures 4-7.

There are three ways of keeping the air in circulation:

1. By heating the air in the foul air shaft.
2. By forcing air into a room by means of a fan.
3. By drawing air out of the room through a suction fan.

The first method is usually adopted in the one-room school and is very common in the larger school buildings. In one-room school buildings the most economical way of heating the foul air shaft is to utilize the waste heat of the smoke-pipe. The foul air shaft should start near the floor, and, in passing upwards through the room, should surround the smoke pipe for some distance, so as to be well heated by it. As fast as the foul air is withdrawn, fresh air will enter under the stove, which should be surrounded by a jacket.

HEATING

The fire-place cannot be depended upon as a means of heating, but it helps to keep the air pure and is a good thing to have in the school room because of its cheerful influence.

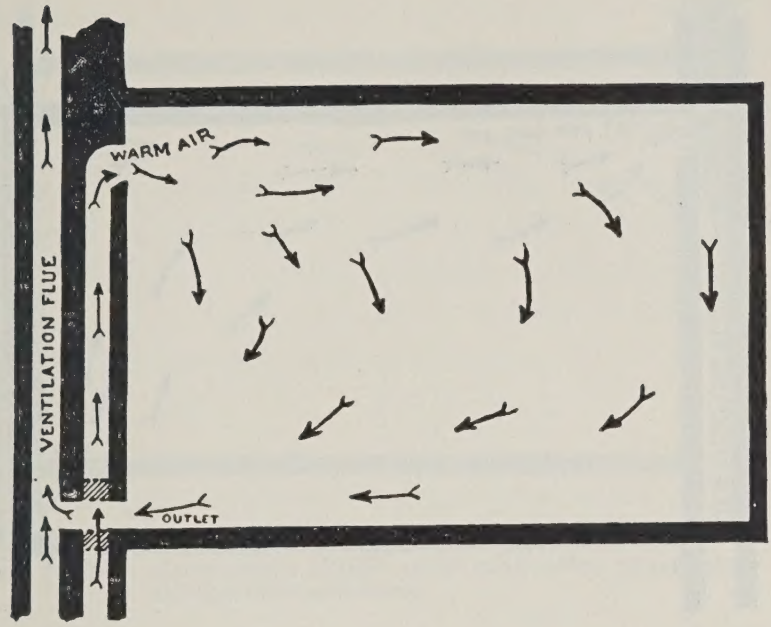

FIG. 3.—Inlet and outlet on same side: complete distribution of air

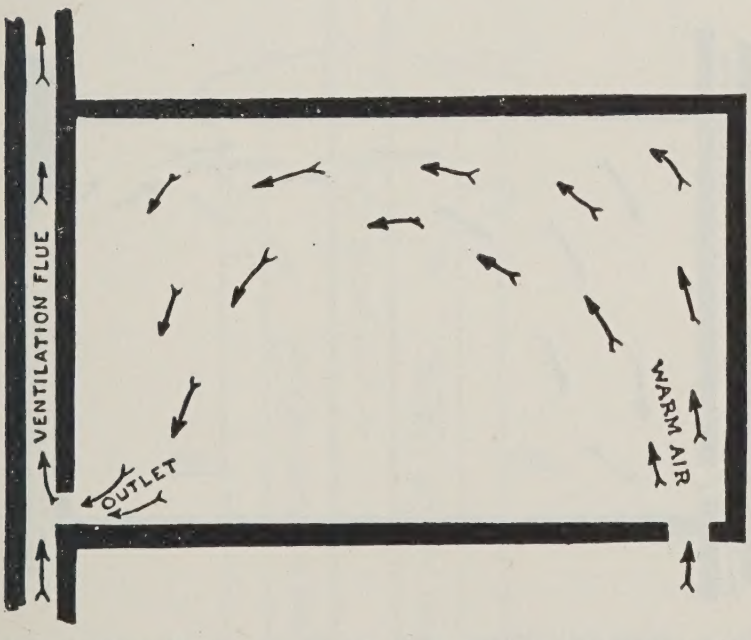

FIG. 4.—Inlet and outlet on opposite sides near floor: partial distribution

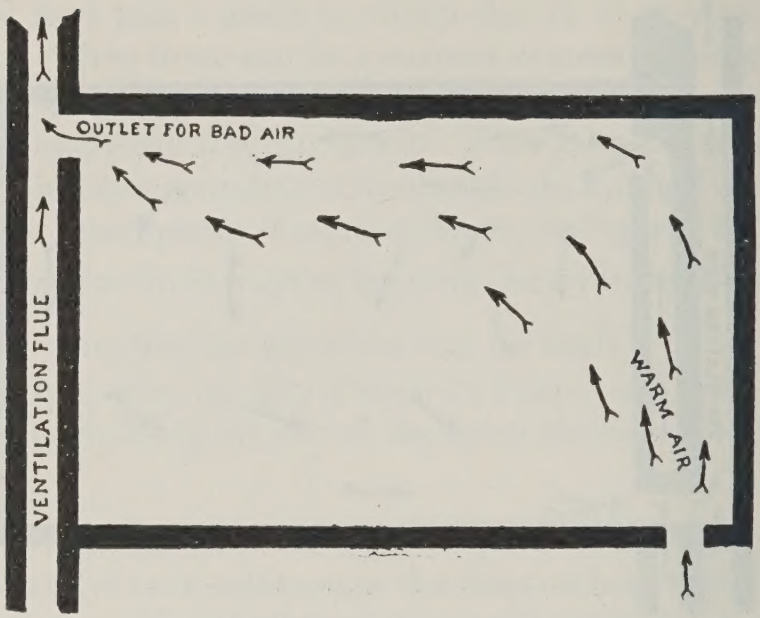

FIG. 5.—Inlet near floor: outlet near ceiling on opposite side: partial distribution

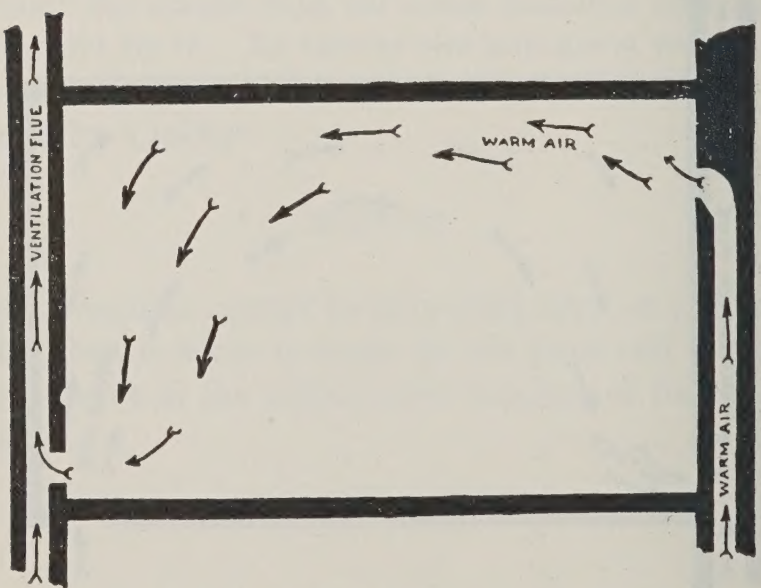

FIG. 6.—Inlet near ceiling: outlet near floor on opposite side: partial distribution

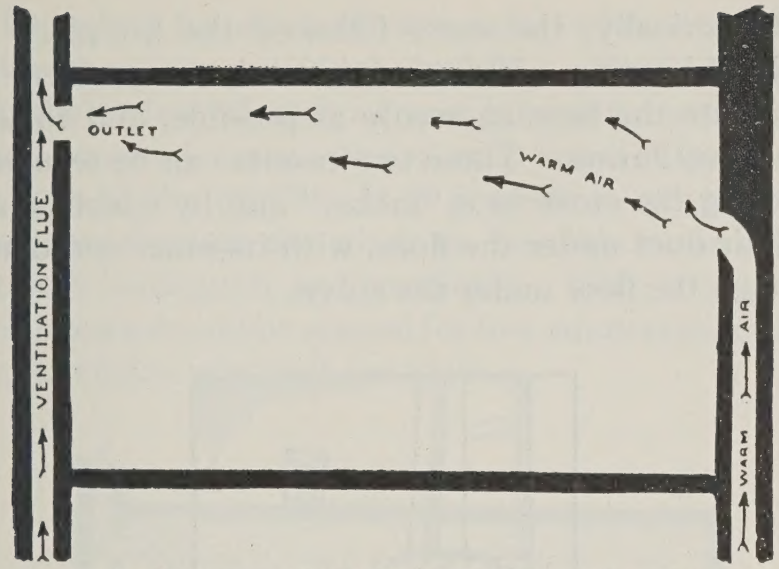

FIG. 7.—Inlet above middle of side: outlet near ceiling on opposite side: partial distribution

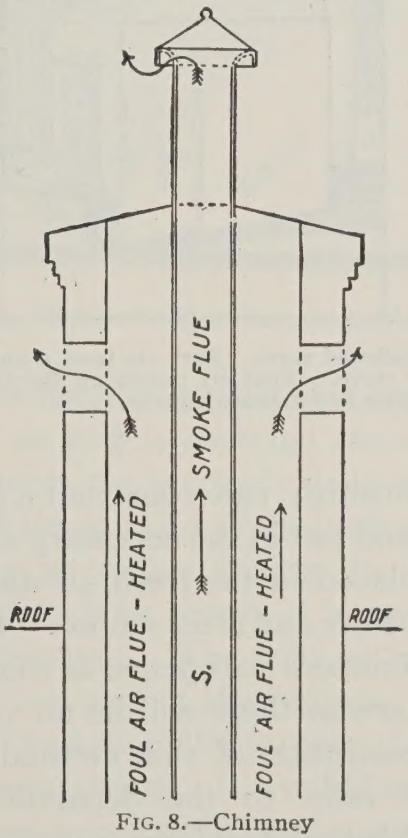

FIG. 8.—Chimney

Historically, the stove followed the fire-place as a mode of heating. If a stove is used, the problem is to distribute the heat as evenly as possible, and to secure some ventilation. These two results can be secured by inclosing the stove in a "jacket" and by constructing a cold air duct under the floor, with its inner end opening through the floor under the stove.

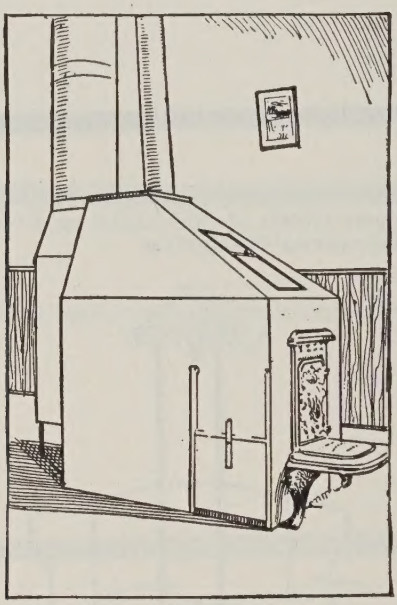

FIG. 9.—Jacketed stove. Pure air from without enters under front end of stove. Foul air passes up the large pipe behind the stove. Heat is distributed evenly.

Any good tinsmith can construct a jacket around an ordinary stove and put in the necessary air ducts. Dampers should be placed in the fresh air ducts so that they may be closed before and after school. The teacher must see that these dampers are opened as soon as the children are seated, otherwise there will be no ventilation at all. For a fuller description of this method of heating, the teacher should refer to the departmental pamphlet, *Plans for Rural School Buildings*, pages 10-12.

The school furnace is often installed without a cold air duct leading from outside the building. By this arrangement the air from the school room is heated over and over again, becoming more vitiated each moment by the exhalations of the pupils. It is possible to ventilate the class room through the windows, but this mode of ventilation is inadequate and unreliable. With any system, the windows should be opened for five minutes every hour as an auxiliary means of ventilation.

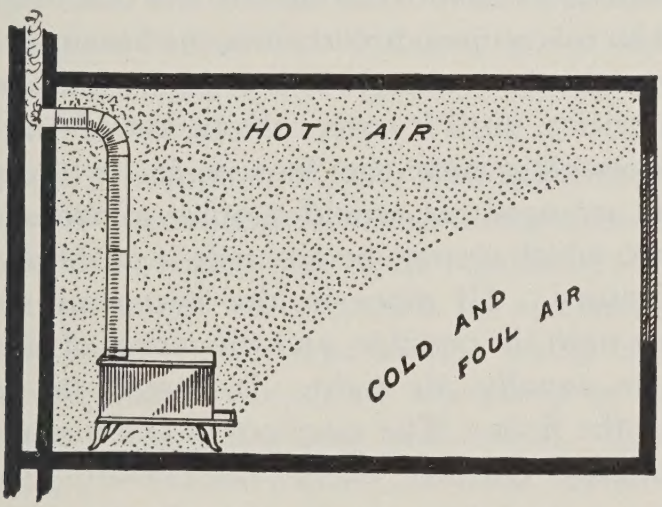

FIG. 10.—Unjacketed stove: unsatisfactory distribution of heat

Foul air ducts must be provided in connection with a furnace, as well as with a jacketed stove. The hot air furnace also requires the teacher's daily attention. One who understands the working of the jacketed stove should find no difficulty in understanding the working of the ordinary furnace, as it is simply a large jacketed stove placed in the basement. The cold air ducts lead from outside to the lower part of the furnace, and the hot-air pipes lead from the top of the furnace through the floor into the class room above. It would be much better if these hot air pipes were carried to an opening above the

pupils' heads, but, in the one-room school, all the walls are outside walls, and therefore it is impracticable to place the hot air pipes in them. There is an advantage in extending a hot air pipe four or five feet above the floor, if it does not obstruct the view. This portion of the pipe should be surrounded by an ornamental grating. The adoption of this plan would prevent children standing over the hot air registers, which is an injurious practice.

Some furnaces are installed without closed cold air ducts leading to them from outside the building; that is, the cold air inlets open directly into the basement, and the air falls to the floor, along which it passes, gathering dust and impurities, until it enters the jacket of the furnace through openings near the floor made for the purpose. Such an arrangement would require a perfectly clean basement, which cannot be secured; it is therefore very unsatisfactory. All pipes in the basement should be made air tight, if possible, and the jacket of the furnace should be equally air tight. It should be cemented firmly to the floor. The air-pipes of the furnace should be throughly cleaned every fall before the fire is started.

It is not necessary that the average teacher should understand the installation of hot-water or steam-heating plants. The former is unsuitable for use in schools because of the danger of freezing. Where the latter is installed, it is usually a low-pressure steam plant, so that with ordinary care there is no danger of accidents. With a steam-heating system it is possible to instal a small engine, which can be used to run a fan for ventilating purposes; but such a plant requires an engineer, upon whom the responsibility of its management devolves. In most of the new school buildings in large cities the fan-ventilating system is adopted. Dr. Gulick, of New York, declares

this system to be highly efficient "in that it unquestionably furnishes each child with the requisite amount of pure air." The extension of the Provincial Hydro-Electric system will make it possible for schools within its territory to instal motors for the purpose of running fans. As the air is heated in this system by being passed over steam coils, the steam plant is still needed. For small school buildings it is possible, of course, to secure small steam plants that are easily managed, but, when the thirty cubic feet of air a minute for each pupil has to be supplied, a plant of considerable capacity is needed. Such a plant needs to be in charge of some one who has expert knowledge of such plants.

The rapid development of the Hydro-Electric system throughout Western Ontario, with the consequent cheapening of electric current, may make it possible for schools in the "power zone" to be heated by electricity at no greater cost than with coal or wood. Many educationists have advocated heating by electricity as the ideal method, but the cost has been prohibitive. More than ten years ago, in a book entitled *An Ideal School*, Preston W. Search outlined a plan for heating and ventilating a school building by means of electricity. His words are quoted as an interesting instance of an ideal approaching realization in the course of ten years:

> The ventilation of the room should be effected through walls that breathe. The walls in Richardson's Hygeia are honeycombed by the bricks, impermeable to water, being perforated transversely with a wedge-shaped opening at each end into which no mortar is inserted; and with all openings communicating into each other. The outer layer of brick is glazed and presents an unbroken surface. The air admitted into the honeycomb should be taken from higher levels and not from the ground, as in all ordinary methods. *The warming of the building should be by tempering the honeycombed air by electric heaters in the*

walls. The air, admitted through all walls at heights above the head level, should be removed by equally well-distributed openings in the floor by mechanical exhaust. In summer time the air should be cooled by mechanical process, giving the negative of our present winter necessities.

HUMIDITY

Air completely saturated with water vapour is said to have a humidity of one hundred per cent. Ordinary outdoor air has a humidity of sixty per cent. In the ordinary heated class room, air has often less than thirty-five per cent. humidity. Such dry air takes up moisture not only from the walls and floors, but from every object in the room, especially from the occupants, and the mucous membranes of the throat and nose lose more moisture than they should. Hence arise sore throats and catarrhal affections of the nasal passages. Moreover, because of the rapid evaporation of moisture from the body when the atmosphere is very dry, a sensation of coolness results, and a higher temperature is required for comfort.

There is still some dispute as to the relative merits of dry and moist air. Some people point to the healthful nature of dry climates to which consumptives are sent, and others to the bracing character of the dry winter climate of our western prairies as a proof that the air of the class room need not be humidified. But the injury to the nose and throat in particular, and to the system generally, results from the constant change from the outdoor moist and cool air to the indoor dry and heated air. The body cannot adjust itself successfully to these rapid changes; hence it is necessary to bring the humidity of the class room air nearer to that of the outdoor air. The humidity of the air in a class room should not be less than

fifty per cent. of saturation. When the class room is heated by a stove, it is easy to secure the required humidity by keeping an open kettle of water on it. On cold days sufficient humidity is indicated by the appearance of moisture on the window panes.

Modern furnaces are supplied with water pans which are usually too small. Furthermore, they are placed where they are not heated sufficiently to evaporate enough water to make the air sufficiently moist. They should be large enough to hold five or six gallons of water, and should be placed above the fire pot, so that evaporation will be rapid. They must be kept clean and well filled with clean water. Water pans should be placed in furnaces which have been installed without them.

When the school building is heated with steam, the problem of humidifying the air may be solved by passing a jet of live steam into the air chamber beyond the heating coils. The amount of steam can be regulated by a valve. The dead steam that escapes from radiators in the class rooms does not diffuse itself sufficiently to humidify the air in the room.

Dr. L. H. Gulick gives the following method of humidifying air. "The air passes a tempering coil, and is drawn through a chamber in which it is thoroughly saturated with water from spray jets. It is next passed through a series of baffle plates which reduces the water and leaves the air at the fifty per cent. humidity mark. The surfaces of these plates catch all the excess moisture, and with it are deposited all particles of dust and impurities. The air then passes through the heating system and is distributed through the building." Tests of the air supplied by such a system show it to have a humidity of over fifty per cent.

THE WATER SUPPLY

Water for schools is secured from three sources: the common dug well, the artesian or bored well, and the water mains of city systems.

The water in the common well may be contaminated by the introduction of foreign matter through a loose

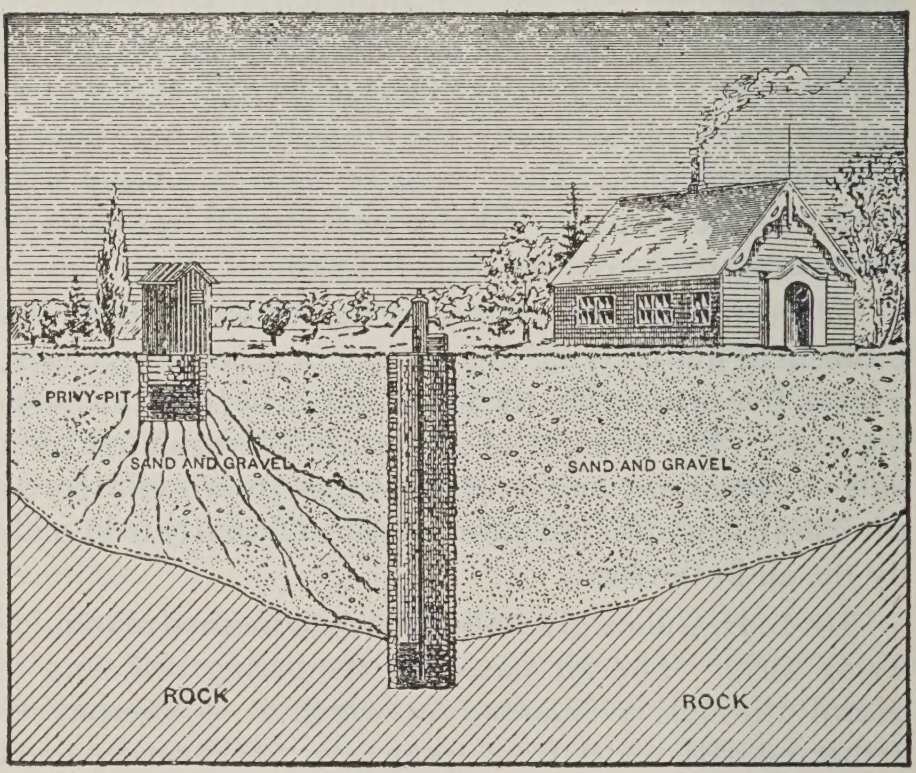

FIG. 11.—Illustration to show the pollution of a school well by seepage from the privy vault.

cover, and by seepage along earth strata from out-door closets and other contaminating sources. Contamination from the first source may be prevented by covering the top of the well with cement instead of with loose boards. Even with this protection it is necessary to pump out the water at least annually, and to see that

the well is thoroughly cleaned. These things should be done a few weeks before school opens.

Seepage through the earth is much more difficult to guard against. The accompanying diagrams show how wells may be contaminated by seepage from closets and barns. To avoid this contamination the well must be

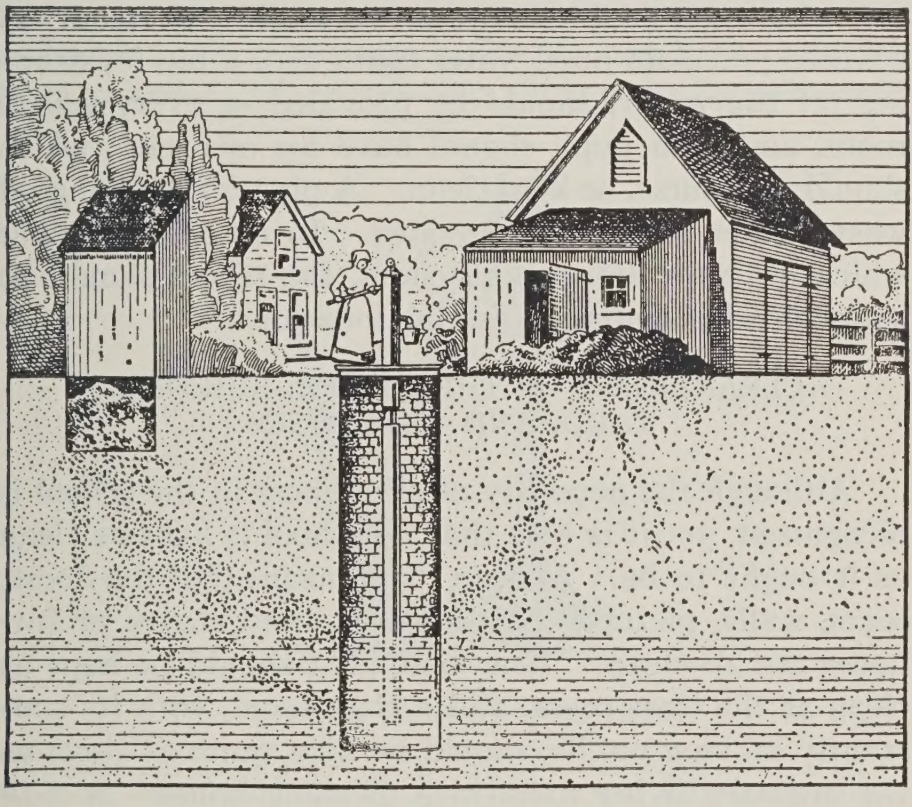

FIG. 12.—Illustration to show pollution of a farm well by seepage from the privy vault and the manure heap.

located so that the strata surrounding the closets and barns do not lead into it.

The artesian well overcomes the difficulty of surface contamination. Such a well is constructed by boring or drilling into the earth to a depth varying from about seventy-five to a hundred and fifty feet, and inserting a

pipe, through which the water rises. The water usually rises in the pipe within a few feet of the surface of the ground, and an iron pump, which is operated like a common pump, is then connected with the pipe. The water at such depths has been thoroughly filtered by passing through layers of gravel and sand.

Even when good water has been obtained, it is too often contaminated by exposure in the school room. A covered porcelain-lined water tank, with a tap for drawing off the water, should be provided in every school room, and each pupil should have his own cup, which should, of course, be kept clean. A pipe for carrying off waste water should be provided. In cities and towns which have a waterworks system, the school should be supplied with sanitary drinking fountains.

CLEANLINESS OF THE SCHOOL BUILDING, YARD, AND OUTHOUSES

Although the necessity of cleanliness in the school is recognized, yet it is true that no school is kept as clean as it ought to be. A clean room means that the floors, seats, walls, pictures, black-boards, and stoves or furnaces are all clean. The basement should be kept as clean as the class room, and a class room, with its constantly moving pupils, should be kept quite as clean as the ordinary living room in a dwelling house. A tidy housekeeper will scrub bare floors at least once a week, while school rooms receive a scrubbing not oftener than every three months, and seldom do the walls and pictures receive any attention whatever. The school should be thoroughly swept each school day, and the furniture dusted with damp or specially prepared oiled dust cloths half an hour before opening. Feather dusters should be prohibited. The use of floor brushes with a little saw-

dust, dampened with water, makes it possible to remove the surface dust without filling the air with it. Every class room should be well scrubbed once a month at least, and the pictures and walls should receive a thorough cleaning at the same time. Black-boards should be washed off weekly, and the chalk troughs and erasers should be cleaned daily. In addition, the pupils should clean the erasers out of doors at recesses. If a pupil suffering from a contagious disease has been debarred from attending school, the class should not be permitted

FIG. 13.—Sanitary drinking fountain

to assemble again until the class room has been thoroughly disinfected and cleaned. Disinfectants should be used frequently in class rooms.

THE SCHOOL YARD

The school should be located on high level ground, away from stagnant water, stables, and refuse of every kind. In addition, the ground should be well underdrained. Weeds and grass should be kept down. No

refuse should be allowed to accumulate in any part of the yard. Covered receptacles for apple cores and waste paper should be kept in the yard and should be emptied daily.

OUTHOUSES

The outhouses of the average school are usually unsatisfactory. Every school should have easily accessible outhouses, properly screened. To be accessible in all kinds of weather, outhouses should be not more than fifty feet from the rear of the school and should have good walks leading to them. The caretaker of the school should see that the outhouses are regularly cleaned, and the teacher should inspect them daily. For a detailed description of the school premises, the student should read carefully the departmental pamphlet, entitled *Plans for Rural School Buildings*, in which special attention is given to this topic.

Boards of Health may be depended upon to see that the closets and urinals in our large schools in towns and cities are properly constructed. If lavatories are well constructed and well lighted, the pupils of the school will not be so likely to deface the walls.

CONTAGIOUS DISEASES

Periodic epidemics of contagious diseases are still so common among the children of our public schools that they occasion slight comment. With adequate medical supervision, parental care, and common sense, these epidemics could be prevented. Since parents are compelled by law to send their children to school, they have a right to demand that they be protected from such diseases as measles, mumps, whooping-cough, chickenpox, scarlet fever, and diphtheria, as well as from human

parasites and all forms of skin diseases. Teachers, parents, and trustees should co-operate with the medical officer of health and the boards of health for the purpose of preventing the spread of disease among school children.

Contagion is spread by discharges from the nose and ears, by saliva, by clothing worn by the patient, by pencils, gum, or other objects placed in the mouth, and, in the case of scarlet fever, measles, and chickenpox, by particles of skin that peel from the body during convalescence. Consequently, the teacher should require every pupil who has chronic discharges from the nose or the ears to be examined by the medical officer of health or by the family physician, and to furnish a certificate of good health. Children should be taught not to cough without covering the mouth with the hand or a handkerchief, not to spit on floors or sidewalks, nor to put the fingers in the mouth, and not to wet the finger with saliva when turning the leaves of books. It is desirable to keep the wraps of pupils from coming in contact with those of other pupils. Pupils should be instructed not to put pencils or other objects in their mouths, not to lend gum, not to give one another "bites" of apples, and not to drink from the same cup. If slates are used, children should be instructed to clean them with a cloth dampened with water. A few bottles of water should be kept in the school room for this purpose.

Skin diseases and sore eyes should be readily seen by the teacher, who should satisfy himself that they are not infectious. As a preventive against possible infection children should not be permitted to use the same towel. Cheap paper towels should be provided, or each child should bring a towel from home for his own use.

The two human parasites which teachers must guard against are itch mites and head lice. Evidence of their

presence will be indicated by the efforts of the pupil infested with them to relieve the itching. The itch mites usually appear first between the fingers, and, later, on the forearm near the wrist. The presence of head lice is indicated by the whittish eggs, or "nits," which are most easily seen in the hair about the ears. These parasites are usually found only on dirty children. The teachers should insist on every child coming to school clean and tidy. The procedure in case of suspected contagious disease is clearly outlined in the *Ontario Public Health Act*, Sec. 72 (3):

> Whenever a professor, lecturer, instructor, or teacher in any such institution of learning (university, college, school, etc.), has reason to suspect that any other professor, lecturer, instructor, or teacher in, or any student or pupil of, or any person employed in or about, such institution, is suffering from any communicable disease, or that there exists in any household of which he is a member any communicable disease, such first mentioned person shall notify the medical officer of health thereof, and shall not permit the attendance of the person suffering from such disease if under his direction or control unless the medical health officer certifies that such attendance may be safely allowed.

Circulars containing full information regarding the common contagious diseases may be obtained from the Chief Medical Officer of Health, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, Ontario. These circulars give information about disinfection which every teacher should know. The campaign for cleanliness is gaining strength yearly, and the teacher should be a leader in educating the people in his community.

The teacher should be interested in the accompanying tables from the *Ontario Public Health Act:*

COMMUNICABLE DISEASES

Smallpox Leprosy	Must be quarantined—no option.
Scarlet fever Diphtheria Bubonic Plague Cholera Measles	Must be quarantined. Bread winners freed by option of Medical Officer Health.
Anterior Polio-Myelitis Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis	Must be placarded.
Typhoid fever Chickenpox Whooping cough	Must be isolated.
Mumps Glanders Anthrax Tuberculosis Rabies Erysipelas	Must be reported to Medical Officer Health.

All diseases must be reported. Premises must be disinfected.

Table showing period of quarantine and date of return to school, according to Section 72 of the *Public Health Act.*—From *Regulations of the Provincial Board of Health.*

Disease.	Quarantine required after last exposure to infection.	Earliest date of return to school after attack.
Smallpox	14 days	When all scabs have fallen off.
Chickenpox	14 "	When all scabs have fallen off.
Measles	16 "	Three weeks, if all desquamation and cough have ceased.
Scarlet fever	10 "	Six weeks, if convalescence is complete, and no desquamation, sore throat, nasal or aural discharges remain.

Diphtheria	12 days	Three weeks, if convalescence is complete, and no sore throat, nasal or aural discharges remain; or if after 12 days two negative swabs with a 12-hour interval are shown to the satisfaction of the M. O. H.
Whooping cough	14 "	Six weeks after the commencement of the whooping if the characteristic cough has ceased—earlier if all cough is gone.
German Measles	16 "	Three weeks.
Mumps	18 "	Four weeks, if all swelling has subsided.
Typhoid Fever		Eight weeks, if convalescence is complete.
Itch, Ringworm, and other skin diseases, Opthalmia, Trachoma, Pediculosis, Impetigo, Contagiosa		As soon as local affections are cured.

SEATING

Seating should be considered in relation to co-operation in the work of the school, and to the comfort and health of the pupils. The former involves the location of the seats in relation to each other and to the teacher's desk; the latter involves the consideration of the seat in relation to the individual pupil.

The seats should be placed with the left side towards the best light. The seat farthest from the window should be distant not more than two and a half times the distance from the floor to the top of the window. No seat should be farther than twenty-five feet from the teacher's desk. The number of rows of single seats should not exceed six,

and the aisles should be at least twenty-four inches wide. Each pupil should have sixteen square feet of floor space. This means that there must be some space in the room which is not occupied by seats and aisles. Such space is advantageous in any room, but especially in primary class rooms, where extra tables and room for marching are needed. Each row should contain seats and desks of one size only, if the seats and desks are not detachable; otherwise one or other will be unsuited to the pupil using them, unless the seats are separate from the desks.

In the best interests of the individual child, the schools should be provided with adjustable single desks and seats. The seats should be separate from the desks so as to avoid the possibility of any desk being disturbed by the pupil immediately in front of it. When seated naturally, each pupil's feet should rest easily upon the floor. His desk should be of such a height that he can place both arms upon it in a natural position for writing without straining the muscles of the back. The lid of the desk must extend over the edge of the seat about one inch. The top of the desk needs a slight slope for writing and a pronounced slope for reading. Usually the slope is made satisfactory for writing. The child should be taught to tip the book into proper position for reading. The most convenient desk for all purposes is one in which books can be kept under a hinged top which may be opened and set at a different slope by a ratchet at the front.

At the very least, the outer row on each side of the room should consist of adjustable seats and desks, which should be adjusted to growing pupils two or three times a year. As a matter of fact, however, very few schools have adjustable seats and desks. Usually, seats and desks of different heights are supplied. The Regula-

tions of the Department of Education provide for four different sizes: that is, seats 11, 12, 13, and 14 inches high at the front, and desks 22, 23, 24, and 26 inches high at the edge near the pupil. In graded schools there should be at least two different sizes in each room, to suit the pupils. Even then, many seats will not be suitable. Consequently, the teacher must find some way of making the pupils in them comfortable. If the seats are too high, foot rests should be provided. If the desks are too high, the seat may be raised by a cushion. The easiest way of overcoming the injurious effects of poor seating is to let the pupils stand a part of the time. Young children should spend half of their time out of their seats.

In order to clean the seats and the floor around them, the supports should be as simple as possible. If each desk and its accompanying seat are fastened to a movable base, all the seats can be moved about the room, leaving certain spaces free of seats, so that chairs may be placed in the room for the use of adults at public meetings. As schools come to be used more frequently by the public, this plan of seating will, no doubt, be generally adopted.

In order to avoid the injurious effects of unsuitable seats, physical exercises should be given every hour when practicable, and should be designed to correct any injuries that may be caused by the seats. At least one recess of fifteen minutes should be allowed each half day. The younger pupils should be given more frequent recesses and be dismissed before four o'clock, unless it is necessary for them to be accompanied home by older members of the family. By calling classes to the front frequently, by allowing much freedom of movement between recitations,

by seizing every opportunity to allow pupils to stand and have physical exercises for a few minutes, injury from unsuitable seats may be prevented or, at least, minimized. Recreation periods of sufficient length at frequent intervals are an important factor in this connection. Under the head of fatigue this matter will be more fully discussed.

EYESIGHT

Class room conditions are often injurious to the eyesight of the pupils. Some of the worst conditions in this respect are cross lights, insufficient light, shiny black-boards, small writing and small print. Cross lights are caused by the presence of windows on opposite sides of the room. A careful adjustment of the blinds will tend to remedy this fault. In order to secure sufficient light, the window space should equal one fifth of the floor space, and the windows should be so placed as not to have the light obstructed by trees, tall buildings, etc. The black-boards should be coated with the special slate paints, which may be secured from all school supply firms; but slate black-boards are the most satisfactory and, in the end, the most economical. The writing on the black-boards should be large and firm. In order to be seen easily at the back of the ordinary class room, the small letters should be about two inches high. If classes are brought to the front, as in rural schools, letters an inch high will do. The size of print in text-books has been made the subject of much investigation. The conclusions of a committee of the British Association for the Advancement of Science are that the size of type should be as indicated in the accompanying typographical table:

Age of Reader	Minimum height of face of small letters	Minimum interlinear space	Maximum No. of lines per Vertical 100 mm.	Maximum length of line or measure of line
Under 7 yrs.	3.5 mm...	5mm. or 14pt.	12	.....
7 to 8 years	2.5 mm...	3.6 mm. or 10pt.	16	100 mm. or 4in.
8 to 9 "	2.0 mm...	2 mm. or 6 pt.	20	93 mm. or 3⅔in.
9 to 12 "	1.8 mm...	2 mm. or 6 pt.	22	" " " "
Over 12 "	1.58 mm..	1.8 mm. or 5 pt.	24	" " " "

1 inch = 25.4 mm. 1 point = 1|72 inch. = 353 mm.

The *Ontario Readers*, which the student should examine in this respect, conform approximately to these measurements.

Whatever conditions prevail, the following rules should be given to the children, and they should be urged to put them into practice:

1. Take good care of your eyes. They are very, very valuable.
2. Never read facing the light, unless it is shaded.
3. Sit so that the light will fall over the left shoulder.
4. Sit erect when reading. Do not read when lying down.
5. Keep the book about fourteen inches from the eyes, and at right angles to the line of vision.
6. Rest the eyes at brief intervals by looking away from the book at a distant point for a few minutes.
7. Avoid reading in a dim light, on a train, or under other unfavourable conditions.
8. Cleanse the eyes morning and evening with soft water.

Some school boards have rules similar to the above placed in every school book.

The teacher should make a point of giving short lessons on the hygiene of the eye, and should impress these rules at every opportunity. On dull days, the blinds should be run to the top, to give as much light as possible. Slates are apt to cause eye strain, because the writing on them is not so easily seen as the writing with black ink on white paper.

The teacher should keep a set of Snellen's cards for testing the pupil's eyes in the school. These cards, which will enable the teacher to detect all serious defects, may be obtained from any oculist. Many parents are ignorant of the defects in their children's vision and will be grateful to the teacher for pointing them out. In order to have these defects properly remedied, the teacher should advise the parents to consult an eye specialist.

HEARING

The hearing of pupils should also receive attention. Any pupil who can stand at the back of the room with his back to the teacher and repeat after him correctly words or names of figures, spoken in a normal tone, has no serious defects in hearing. One ear at a time should be tested, as ears usually vary in their acuteness of hearing. It is not unusual to find from five to ten per cent. of the pupils in a class defective in one or both ears. These pupils should be seated near the front.

BREATHING

Most physiologists deal pretty thoroughly with defects of sight and hearing, but not with defects of breathing. In many cases, mouth breathing is merely a bad

habit which may be corrected by the parents and the teacher enforcing a correct habit. In other cases it is caused by adenoids. But rapid and shallow breathing is as common and as serious a defect as mouth breathing. Some years ago, two children in a Form II class were found breathing at the rate of thirty-five and forty-two times a minute respectively; in a Form IV class the rate varied from normal (sixteen a minute) to twenty-seven. All breathing of over twenty respirations a minute is too rapid, and consequently does not fill the lungs to their full expansion. Not only the lungs but the heart will be injuriously affected by such defective breathing. Physical exercises will tend to correct this defect.

MEDICAL SUPERVISION.

In cities, the health of the pupils is being guarded by the appointment of doctors and nurses, who conduct regular and systematic inspections and give parents the advice that is required in each case. The teacher can do much to extend this system and make it a success, by keeping in touch with the work done. He can also do much to secure the active co-operation of the medical officer of health and the board of health in improving health conditions not only in the school but in the neighbourhood. If meetings are held in the school, talks on sanitation, pure food, the relation of flies and mosquitoes to disease, and subjects of similar nature should be arranged. The people in a democratic country must understand the fundamental principles underlying the improvements to be made, or the efforts will be spasmodic, and the results only temporary.

FIRE DRILL

Fire drill requires absolute co-operation on the part of every member of the school under the absolute command of the teacher. Running is not necessary, and may, indeed, be dangerous. A fast walk is all that is required, and two or four rows of children, hand in hand, may pass down the stairs together.

The following rules should be observed:

1. At the alarm of fire, which is prearranged, pupils should take places at the doors and at other points where they are needed.

2. The teacher should have a familiar order; for example, Fire, Turn, Stand, March. (Two rows passing out together)

3. The several rooms on one flat should have a definite order of precedence, the younger classes passing down first. Primary classes should always be on the ground floor, and buildings should be limited to two stories, if possible, for regular class rooms.

4. Thoroughly familiar signals should bring all lines to the halt, start them again, or change their direction from one stair to another.

5. Teachers will always remain in the room until the last pupil has passed out, and then follow their classes down.

6 No books should be carried out, but wraps may be secured if the cloak rooms are convenient, and each pupil has a definite place in it.

7. Practise often enough to secure controlled response. Smoke may be produced at times, to make the fire-alarm more realistic.

8. All outside doors should open outward. *They should never be locked*, even if sneak thieves occasionally profit thereby.

9. Musical alarms are now considered preferable to the fire gong, which excites pupils by its clanging.

10. In case of a real fire, teachers should search the basements for pupils who may be there.

CHAPTER VII

CARE OF THE CHILD (Continued)

NATURE OF FATIGUE

THE school is organized for the purpose of educating the child. In reacting to the stimuli provided by conditions in the school, the mind of the child is developed. The laws that govern the development of the child are known by the properly qualified teacher, and up to this point it has been assumed that the various activities of the school have been carried on in harmony with these laws. Unfortunately, however, the best qualified teachers may err in applying well-known laws, and may thereby hinder the process of development. The most common mistakes made by teachers in this respect are in assigning work that is too difficult for the child, and in requiring long-continued effort. In either case, there is sure to be nervous fatigue. This question of fatigue requires the teacher's careful study and consideration.

Every one is aware of the fact that the vigorous use of muscles produces a state known as "feeling tired." First, the muscles actually used in the work feel tired, and, as activity is continued, the whole body becomes tired. When this reaches a certain state there is a disposition to do nothing, until rest and food have restored the body to its former vigour. At the same time, it is well known that, after a moderate degree of activity along a certain line, the worker may turn to some other form of activity with almost as much zest as he began the first, and may follow this for some time without feeling tired; after this,

again, a third form of activity may be followed, or the first may be resumed with something of the original vigour. In the end, however, the power to work decreases, and the body demands rest, which is most satisfactorily obtained in sleep.

It is natural that fatigue should affect the nervous system, which is the real centre of the energy of the body. Mosso, who has investigated the problem of fatigue, and who can speak with authority on this subject, says: "There exists only one kind of fatigue, namely, nervous fatigue; this is the preponderating phenomenon, and muscular fatigue, also, is at the bottom an exhaustion of the nervous system."

While, in relation to the physical structure of the individual, there is only one kind of fatigue, nervous fatigue, there are from the standpoint of time, however, two kinds, temporary, and permanent, or chronic, fatigue. After temporary fatigue the normal condition of the body is soon restored by rest, food, and sleep. Chronic fatigue is a disease which requires long and expert treatment. The teacher should be expert enough to detect the early signs which indicate that fatigue is becoming chronic. He should take steps at once to prevent the further progress of it by lessening the demands made upon the pupil in the school.

CAUSE OF FATIGUE

It has been demonstrated that the cause of fatigue is the production of poisonous substances in the active parts of the body. Complete rest is attained only when these substances have been removed, not only from the local muscles, but also from the body through the excretory organs. If it were possible to remove these poisonous

substances as fast as they are formed, both from the active part, and also from the body, in all probability fatigue would not be experienced. This, however, is not possible, and some degree of fatigue will always be induced by continued activity.

On the other hand, when the body is inactive for an unusual length of time, fatigue is produced. Tanner gives as conditions of mental fatigue, "not enough work or not enough variety in it." Thus, the pupil who is inactive in the school room, whether because the work is too difficult, or too easy, is in a favourable condition to become fatigued.

It is the fatigue of the nerve centres of control that is the most dangerous result of overwork. Dr. C. F. Hodge has shown what fatigue of nerve centres means. The cells shrink and become more granular, while the nuclei in them become very much smaller. Whether actual destruction of nerve cells results from overwork or not, has not yet been proved. Until it has been proved, it would be as well to assume that nerve cells may be permanently destroyed. It is wise, therefore, to conserve nervous energy. It is claimed that the nerves themselves do not become fatigued, but, while this may be true in certain cases, it is possible that the nerves of some individuals are more susceptible to fatigue than those of others. A physician ventures the opinion that those people who have spent their early life in active outdoor work, such as is obtained on a farm, never suffer from nervousness in after life. Hence, it is important that the nerves, nerve centres, and muscles should be well developed in youth in order to avoid nervous breakdown in later life.

Of course, inherited constitutional weakness and poor nutrition are predisposing causes of fatigue; but the

teacher is not responsible for these conditions, nor can he remedy them directly to any great extent. On the other hand, he is responsible for conditions arising from the environment and mode of life at school. The most important of these are unhygienic conditions, especially impure air, long application to work, eye and ear strain, poor equipment, such as poor pens, pencils, ink, and paper, noise, fussiness, uninteresting work, fear, worry, and excitement. Sitting in one position for long periods is also fatiguing. All these conditions will be aggravated if the pupil does not get sufficient rest and sleep, or if the temperature in the school room is too high. In general, the use of the accessory muscles, which are active in all fine work, is much more fatiguing than the use of the fundamental muscles which are used in the coarser movements.

Difficult work, which requires great concentration of attention, is, of course, exceptionally fatiguing, especially to immature minds. Children under eight years of age cannot attend long to any subject of study. Most authorities give fifteen minutes as the maximum length of time for lessons in any subject for children under seven years of age; twenty minutes for those from seven to ten; twenty-five minutes for those from ten to twelve; thirty minutes for those from twelve to fourteen; and forty minutes for those above that age. Children up to eight years of age become fatigued easily, while from eight to twelve or thirteen, they have strong resisting power to fatigue. With the beginning of puberty, at about thirteen years of age, there is a year or more of great susceptibility to fatigue. After this period is safely passed, the power to resist fatigue increases up to fifteen years, and then, according to Dr. G. Stanley Hall, decreases for a time. From recent experiments in connection with this subject, Winch concludes that the fatigue effects are very much

lessened as the children rise in age and mental capacity.

Finally, the hour of the day has a great deal to do with ability to work, and therefore, with susceptibility to fatigue. It is now generally agreed that the best working period of the day is from nine to eleven, and that energy decreases during the next hour. The noon rest of one hour and a half restores the energy in part only, so that at one-thirty the power to work is much below what it was at nine o'clock. It decreases from one-thirty to shortly after two o'clock, after which there is an increase for about an hour. Child Study investigators in the Chicago public schools determined the power curve from nine to three-thirty, as illustrated in the accompanying diagram, which gives the "course of power" through the school day of a single pupil in Chicago schools·

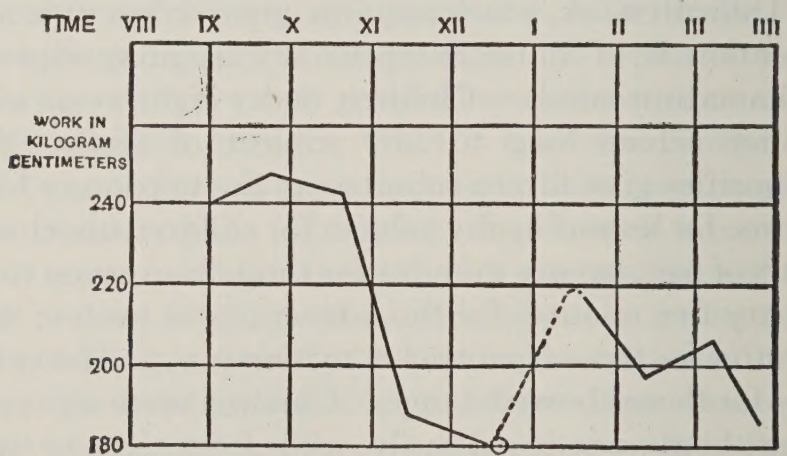

FIG. 14

Data—The weight, 3 kilograms (about 6 lb. 10 oz.) was lifted once in two seconds for ninety seconds.

*Time of test.....	9.00	9.47	10.40	11.30	12.18	1.34	2.20	3.13	3.35
Work done.....	240	249	243	189	180	219	198	207	183

*O'Shea *Dynamic Factors in Education* (page 292)

This daily rise and fall in the energy of the individual has its counterpart in weekly, monthly, yearly, and life rhythms. Saturday is a day of low energy in each weekly period. Each individual has a monthly period of low energy peculiar to himself or herself. All people find April and August to be the months of lowest energy. Men find their lowest life rhythm at twenty-two, thirty, thirty-nine to forty, and fifty-four to fifty-six, while women experience the same at nineteen, twenty-seven, thirty-six, forty-four to forty-six, and fifty-two.

SIGNS OF FATIGUE

The signs of temporary fatigue are a tired look, fidgetiness, inattention, decreased activity, listless conversation, forgetfulness, and sleepiness. In chronic fatigue, these signs are more marked: the expression is wearied, the forehead furrowed, and the eyes sunken; a bluish coloration forms around the eyes, the pupils of which become enlarged. Often the orbicular muscles of the eyes are so relaxed as to cause a bagginess below them. The bodily movements are slow and awkward, or quick and jerky, lacking precision. There may be twitching of the fingers, or of the muscles about the eyes, or about the corners of the mouth. The appetite is capricious, with a tendency to extremes, and sleep may be disturbed by bad dreams.

TESTS FOR FATIGUE

When the signs just enumerated are present, the state of fatigue is well advanced. It is highly desirable that the teacher should have some simple test to detect the very beginning of the chronic state; that is, the time when rest and sleep fail to restore the normal energy. Kirk-

patrick says that there are no tests of easy application which can take the place of intelligent common sense and good judgment. Extreme fatigue may be tested by the nervousness of the pupil. Rowe states that the best test for nervousness is to ask the pupil to stand and hold the arms and hands in a perfectly horizontal position with the palms of the hands down. Nervous pupils will have quivering, twitching fingers, and sagging thumbs. The arms tend to droop also. Of course, these evidences of nervousness may be due to other causes than fatigue, such as disease, or shocks. It should also be remembered that nervous action is often the result of imitating nervous people. Whether the cause of fatigue can be clearly determined or not, the teacher should know his nervous pupils and endeavour to improve their condition. Rowe suggests the test of closing the eyes while standing. Nervous pupils sway much more than others, sometimes almost falling. In neither of these tests are the pupils to be told about the phenomena which the teacher is observing. The tests should be given as a part of the regular calisthenic exercises.

PREVENTION OF CHRONIC FATIGUE

Owing to the difficulty of detecting chronic fatigue, the teacher should take every precaution to prevent it. Evidences of temporary fatigue at the close of each day may be looked upon as a perfectly normal state, giving warning of the need of rest. But if these evidences are present in the morning there is need of careful investigation. Indeed, if pupils have all the signs of fatigue and say they do not feel tired, the teacher should know that this is indisputable evidence of an advanced state of fatigue. In order to prevent undue fatigue, the teacher

will arrange the subjects on the time-table in the best order, and he will make the length of the recitation periods suit the age of the pupil. In rural schools, there is no danger of this period being too long, except in very small schools, but in urban schools the periods are usually too long. The teacher should give frequent periods for relaxation. A recess of ten minutes every hour is strongly recommended, especially for children from six to ten years of age. During these periods and at noon, children should play good, wholesome games, by means of which the most beneficial rest is secured.

One reason for the necessity of frequent rests, is that, as the period of application is extended, the period of rest for complete recovery has to be extended, not in proportion to the time of application, but in proportion to the square of that time. Thus, if mental work of one hour requires a ten-minute rest, that of two hours requires four times as long a rest, or forty minutes. During the past few years, interesting data have been collected regarding labourers carrying heavy loads. From these data, it has been concluded that a strong man carrying a ninety-six pound load should be free from load fifty-six per cent. of the time. But under a forty-eight pound load he needs to be free only thirty-five per cent. of the time. Employers are beginning to learn that a man can do much more work in a day without being fatigued when these principles are observed. There is surely much more need of teachers knowing the laws of mental fatigue than of employers knowing the laws of physical fatigue

The hours of work should not be too long. Dr. Dukes, who has studied this subject, reached the following conclusions regarding the hours of study at different ages:

From	5	to	6	years	of	age,	6	hours	a	week
"	6	"	7	"	"	"	9	"	"	"
"	7	"	8	"	"	"	12	"	"	"
"	8	"	9	"	"	"	15	"	"	"
"	9	"	10	"	"	"	18	"	"	"
"	10	"	11	"	"	"	21	"	"	"
"	11	"	12	"	"	"	25	"	"	"
"	12	"	14	"	"	"	30	"	"	"
"	14	"	15	"	"	"	35	"	"	"
"	15	"	16	"	"	"	40	"	"	"

The table is given in order to stimulate thought on the subject of the amount of mental work which a child is capable of doing. It is worth noting that Dr. Dukes recommends a period as long as our school day only for those over eleven years of age. If he is right, what should be said of those who demand that children of seven to ten years of age shall stay in crowded, poorly-ventilated school-rooms for twenty-five hours a week, and do home work besides? A child will start in life to better advantage if, up to eight years of age, he spends his afternoon hours in play, preferably in charge of a supervisor.

As additional preventives of fatigue, school work should be made interesting and the school-room pleasant. The teacher should be pleasant and helpful. Written examinations should be as few and as short as possible. The atmosphere of the school should be natural, and the teacher and the pupils should talk in natural tones and move about in a natural way.

MORAL TRAINING

By moral training is meant the training of the individual to act, in any given situation, in such a way as to exhibit his higher self, whether in his dealings with others, or in matters that concern himself. The morality that

is in the act is determined by the *intention* of the individual who performs the act. To ensure moral training in the school, it must be organized and operated upon a moral basis. There must be a consciousness of the end to be attained, a constant desire to attain that end, and action in harmony with the desire. Occasional and spasmodic efforts can only prove inadequate. Moral character can be developed only by continuous moral action.

Certain conditions are essential in order to ensure the moral development of the pupils in the school. These are, a suitable organization, a favourable environment, and rational knowledge. The kind of organization described in this Manual is advocated because of its influence upon moral development. The educative influence exerted by a suitable environment must not be overlooked, however. In such an environment the example and personality of a moral teacher should be placed first. Next in order of importance are the school and the playground. All that is said about these in other Chapters has a bearing upon this topic. The furniture, the pictures and their arrangement, should be viewed in their relation to right action. Cheap furniture and gaudy pictures, as well as careless teachers, should be excluded from all school rooms, because they suggest insincerity and are hindrances to moral development. The library should contain only those books that suggest the highest plane of living. The class room should be clean, bright, and sanitary, and the playground attractive.

The knowledge of one's duty to himself, to his neighbours, to society, and to the universal laws of righteousness, is necessary, if good intentions are to find their fruition in moral action. Thought and action should agree; to think one way and to act another is dishonest. The

individual should know his neighbour's rights and should respect them; his needs and should minister to them. He should recognize that his relation to society as a whole demands that he should be individually efficient as a member of society, and that he should serve it faithfully in the way that contributes to the good of the whole. Finally, he should recognize that he owes obedience to the laws of righteousness, which are recognized by all civilized nations independent of legal enactment by their law-makers.

The opposite attitude tends to develop an immoral state of mind. All selfish actions tend in the same direction. It is manifest, therefore, that when prizes, per cents., and standing in class are the main incentives used in securing activity in the school, moral training becomes more difficult.

Moral training in the school depends upon the management of the school, the teaching process, and the teacher's personality. If the management of the school is based upon unity of purpose and co-operation of effort, moral training is assured. If it is not based upon these principles, moral training is impossible. What can any number of lessons on morality accomplish in the face of a system of management that is in opposition to sound moral principles? The answer is obvious. If the management is based upon sound principles, the teaching process, which, as shown in Chapter II, is an integral part of school management, will also contribute to the development of a moral individual. History, literature, and art, properly taught, are distinctly moral in their influence. The study of truth, as expressed in arithmetic, science, or language, can have but one effect, and that a moral one. All subjects of study tend to inculcate im-

portant moral truths, and all the more effectively when the influence of the teacher's personality tends in the same direction.

It may seem strange to some readers that rewards and punishments are not given as means of moral training. The former must be viewed as selfish, rather than as moral, ends, and the latter are not primarily a means of moral training. But, at a period when the child is too immature to grasp the significance of high moral aims, both rewards and punishments may, nevertheless, have a moral purpose in revealing to him that certain consequences—either of pleasure or of pain—follow certain acts. Higher moral ideals will come at a later stage of development, provided the teacher who secures good conduct by means of rewards or punishments does not become satisfied with the results he has obtained and neglect the higher aim.

Morals and manners are closely related. To a certain extent, one's manners are the expression of his morals; that is, of his idea of duty to his fellow men. In fact, these two interact upon each other, so that one's manners have a marked effect upon one's morals. It is, therefore, the teacher's duty to train his pupils to be mannerly.

In order to develop good manners, the teacher should give instruction in them to his pupils from time to time, dealing with their conduct in the class room, on the playground, on the street, and in the home. He should demonstrate the meaning of good manners in his daily intercourse with his pupils, insist upon their practising them in the class room and on the school grounds, and not fail to show disapproval of breaches of courtesy on the part of pupils, whether to the teacher or to one another.

The universal laws of righteousness are set forth by the various religious organizations of the country, and are

sometimes regarded as binding only upon the members of these organizations. The man who belongs to no religious body cannot, however, shirk the responsibility of obeying these laws. The religious organizations stand ready to help him obey them, as soon as he realizes his duty in respect to them. Their chief function is to teach these laws and to help their members to obey them. It would seem, therefore, that the school cannot refuse to teach the fundamental laws of Christianity. There is still hope that Christians and non-Christians may yet agree upon a body of knowledge that may be taught in all our schools in such a way as to secure moral action of the highest kind. To each sect must be left the duty of instructing its own members in its own particular tenets, or beliefs.

CHAPTER VIII

THE MODERN SCHOOL

BEFORE considering the actual management of a school, it is necessary to consider the most favourable conditions for good management. The teacher and trustees should have a standard towards which to strive. In this connection some of the vital questions are:

1. What is a good modern school building?
2. What is a good class room?
3. What is a good playground?
4. What equipment is essential in order to carry on school work satisfactorily?
5. What is the ideal relation between the teacher and the pupil?
6. What is the ideal relation between the school and the home?
7. What relation should the school bear to the community as a whole?

THE BUILDING

With the architecture of the school building the teacher will have little to do. If any teacher should be so fortunate as to be consulted in reference to the plan of a new school building, he should state what he wants in the way of class room space, black-board surface, private rooms, hallways, and cloak rooms, and should leave the architectural details to be worked out by some one who understands the subject. The Department of Education of Ontario has published a suggestive and helpful pamph-

let, entitled *Plans for Rural School Buildings*, which should be consulted by those contemplating the erection of new schools. Every one connected with school work should endeavour to improve school architecture, so that the present buildings which are devoid of any architectural beauty should be replaced within the next generation by modern structures. Improvement in school buildings should keep pace with improvement in dwelling houses and in other public buildings in a community.

Although teachers are not called upon to design school buildings, they should make a study of modern architecture with a view to improving the taste of the community in this direction. A substantial building, well proportioned and tastefully painted, is not yet a common feature of rural landscapes, but there is a gradual improvement in school architecture and school grounds.

CLASS ROOMS

In all modern school buildings, class rooms are lighted from one side only, preferably from the east or northeast. The windows are placed as close together as safety in construction will allow, so as to reduce to a minimum the shadow cast by the intervening wall spaces. Indeed, shadows may be almost entirely prevented by bevelling the window frames. In a room of regulation size, it is quite feasible to place five windows, each four feet by nine feet, in the side of the room. Wherever it is necessary to use both sides of a room for window space, the windows on the sunny side should be placed high and glazed with ground or other non-transparent glass. In this way injurious cross lights are prevented. The tops of the windows should be square and should reach nearly to the ceiling. The sash for all windows above the first story should be reversible, for greater ease in cleaning the windows.

The black-boards, which should extend along two sides of the room, should be of slate, four feet wide. A four-inch chalk trough covered with wire netting, should be constructed below each board. At each end of the trough there should be a detachable tin receptacle, into which the chalk dust may be brushed. These receptacles are made by boring a hole an inch or more in diameter through the trough and fitting into this a tin collar which should be flush with the upper surface and should extend a half inch beyond the lower surface. The tin cup is made to fit over this extension of the collar. In rooms for primary classes the lower edge of the board should not be more than two feet from the floor, and in other classes not more than two and a half feet. If the lower edge of the board is set three inches farther from the wall than the upper edge, there will be no glare from the board at any point in the room.

Each class room should contain a small bulletin board, on which the best work of the pupils may be exhibited. In large schools there should be a bulletin board in the hall on each floor, on which to post announcements. The best covering for these boards is green baize, but green burlap will answer.

Owing to the fact that dust collects on ledges, a class room should have as few of them as possible. The door and window frames should be flush with the plaster, which should be smooth enough to prevent dust accumulating. The angles made by the meeting of the walls with the ceiling and floor should be rounded. Any ledge or picture frame on which dust may collect should be cleaned daily. The dust nuisance may be materially lessened by oiling the floors, but only hardwood floors can be satisfactorily oiled. Hard maple flooring is the best for class rooms. The most suitable woods for finishing

class rooms are Georgia pine, birch, black ash, and oak. All the woodwork should be stained and varnished, but not painted, and the furniture should be in keeping with the woodwork of the school. The corridors and stairs should be fireproof. Floors of rooms situated above other rooms should be deadened by constructing a double floor and filling the space between with specially made felt paper. This is especially necessary when the ceilings of the rooms are covered with metal instead of plaster.

The modern school should be equipped in such a manner as to economize time. In large schools there should be some direct means of communication between the principal's office and each class room in the building. Speaking tubes will answer, but telephone connection is better. Another means of economizing time is the electric clock system, by which bells are rung throughout the building at stated times. Each class room teacher should be ready to dismiss or to change lessons promptly upon the sounding of the signal.

To provide for the most satisfactory arrangement of seats, a class room should be thirty feet long and twenty-six feet wide. The height should be about thirteen feet. The school should have sufficient cloak room accommodation for the pupils, conveniently located, and a private room for the teacher or teachers. If, as is sometimes the case, the rural school consists of one large room, and the attendance has materially decreased since the school was built, an opportunity is then afforded for partitioning off part of the room to supply the necessary cloak rooms and teacher's room.

In such a remodelled building the lighting of the class room would have to be increased by putting more

windows on one side. If this is not sufficient, light could be admitted from the other side through prism glass above the cloak room. There will also be more space available for black-boards than in the ordinary room, since most of the partition may be used for this purpose.

Many improvements in existing conditions could be made in the old school buildings throughout the country. The health and comfort of the woman teacher in the rural schools demand that something should be done to overcome the present intolerable lack of privacy in those schools where there is only one room. A comfortable apartment for the teacher will have a beneficial effect upon the management of the school and be conducive to the best interests of the pupils.

In rural schools with but one class room, the basement is an important part of the building. Part of it will accommodate the furnace and fuel, and a manual training bench or two could be installed in it. It may be made a store house for many things that can not be kept in the class room. In order to serve these purposes, however, the basement must be dry and airy—conditions which are too frequently lacking.

DECORATION

Although school buildings have improved, there is still, in most rural schools, and even in urban schools, a lack of many necessary appliances and of even the most primitive decorations. It would be quite easy and inexpensive to decorate the walls of any class room by putting a simple moulding around the room at the height of the doors, and by painting the walls below it a restful shade of gray-green, and then above it, light yellow or cream, to blend with the white of the ceiling. A plain table, made

of ash or oak, and three well-made chairs of neat design, costing at least two dollars each, should be in every school. The thirty-cent kitchen chair and the school room should have parted company long ago. Then if the stove is kept clean and properly jacketed, and a few good pictures are hung on the walls, the room will offer some attraction, even to the artistic eye. Pictures should be copies of good paintings, with plain frames of natural wood properly stained. Excellent colour reproductions, which many people prefer to sepias, can be secured cheaply, so that the cost of all these improvements is quite within the means of the average school section.

Clean floors and seats must, of course, precede decoration. It would be incongruous to have pictures and artistic walls in a room where the floors and seats were old, dilapidated, and unsanitary. New floors should be provided first, then new seats, decorated walls, and pictures, in the order named. New hardwood floors should be oiled with a durable sanitary substance that may be readily cleaned.

THE PLAYGROUND

Children have special need of good playgrounds, yet few schools have satisfactory ones. Many have grounds that are much too small for good school games or that receive practically no attention, and, consequently, are unfit to play in. There is at present, however, an evidence of a new interest in playgrounds which promises to produce good results.

Every school playground should contain:

1. Space for trees and flowers
2. Space for a small school garden
3. Good outhouses

4. Separate play areas for the older boys and girls

5. A special area for the children of the lower grades

6. Suitable equipment, such as wooden blocks, sand-piles, sand boxes, shovels and pails, swings, see-saws, and slides in the area used by the young pupils; ball diamond, vaulting poles, turning poles, jumping boxes, rings, and ladders in the boys' yard; giant stride, tennis court, basket ball court, space for rounders, and swings in the girls' yard.

The teacher should consult the pamphlet entitled *Improvement of School Grounds*, published by the Department of Education, which contains very valuable information concerning this important topic. He should also make a special study of games in relation to education. There are excellent books published on games and plays, and there is no longer any excuse for neglecting this important side of school life.

EQUIPMENT

The Department of Education aims to make a library part of the equipment of every rural school, and of urban schools except in places where there are public libraries. The value of a good school library can scarcely be over-estimated, especially if a section of it is devoted to books suitable for adults. This section would not need to be large, if a system of exchange were adopted to include ten or fifteen schools. It would serve as an important link between the school and the home. Even where there is a public library, the schools may be used advantageously as distributing centres. A set of forty well-chosen books in charge of a teacher will serve a public school. If the school has a library, care should be taken to keep it in good condition. Each book should have a stout manilla cover; these the pupils can make themselves. Loose

leaves should be glued in with transparent library tape, which can be used also for repairing torn leaves. All books should be taken out of circulation as soon as damaged, thoroughly repaired, and rebound if necessary, before being returned. A committee of older students should have charge of this work.

It is assumed that the books will be placed in a neat case, inclosed by doors with glass fronts, so that inspection of the books may be made without opening the case. In addition to this piece of furniture, every school should have a filing cabinet of some sort. If one of wood is found too expensive, then strong cardboard files should be obtained. Every teacher should know how to make a profitable use of these files, as they are indispensable for keeping such material as pictures, notes, catalogues, magazine articles, and other collections of value. Small table files with card indexes will be found to be the best means of registration for everything except daily attendance, which will, of course, be kept in the register provided by the Department of Education. A card index for the library is the most workable kind of catalogue that can be made.

The school should have a good physiological chart, but it is not necessary to spend much money on other charts. The best kind of chart in the school room is one of the home-made variety—a collection of pictures, drawings, etc., made by the teacher and children themselves. For example, to construct a bird chart that will be inexpensive, and yet very satisfactory, pictures of birds may be bought very cheaply and mounted on separate sheets of gray cardboard of light weight. A class can study only one bird at a time. The other birds on a large chart distract the attention of the pupils. In winter, the few birds which remain in any district should be studied

one at a time, in succession; and pictures of these birds should be left on the wall for a few weeks after they have been studied. Only those birds should be included in the collection of any school which are known to spend part of the year in the vicinity, or pass through it in their migrations.

Collections of local historical material, of geological specimens from the locality around the school, of agricultural products, especially the grains; of manufactured products from these grains—flour, bran, shorts, oatmeal, pearl barley, corn starch, and other corn products; of sets illustrating the life histories of common insects; of common plants; of models of various objects, such as boats, lighthouses, tepees, pioneer implements, and dresses, should be added gradually. Making dresses for dolls, representing the costumes of different nationalities, such as Japanese, Chinese, or Swiss, is excellent practice for the sewing class, and the finished product is valuable in history and geography lessons.

No teacher should be satisfied with his attainments until he has sufficient knowledge of tools to make simple articles for daily use. No better method of teaching pupils to care for the school can be adopted than the construction of articles for use in and around the school. The destructive tendency in children is only the constructive tendency uncontrolled, and can be counteracted by developing the constructive capacities of the child.

Every school should have two or three manual training benches in the basement, the attic, or the shed, or even in the class room, so that everything required for the ordinary games, garden work, and other activities may be made in the school. If the prescribed Manual Training Course is taken up, a separate room will be necessary, as a bench must be supplied for each pupil.

In the same way, the care of the school garden will inculcate the spirit of respect for public and private property in the vicinity. Teachers and parents have been slow to apply the well-known principle that normal people never wantonly destroy their own property. If every child feels that he is one of the owners of the school property, there will be no trouble in preserving it.

In nearly every rural school in this Province the majority of the children take their lunches to school, and, owing to lack of proper conveniences, they are obliged to eat their lunches in a state that is not appetizing and under conditions that are unsanitary.

It is surely reasonable, and would be quite practicable to have water at all times, and warm water in winter, which would be available for all to wash with both before and after eating. A sink may be provided at small expense, and paper towels are cheap. Many high schools consider it necessary to arrange for a substantial mid-day lunch, a practice which gives the most desirable setting for the teaching of domestic science. Why should some similar practice not be adopted in our rural schools? Women teachers, at least, should find it quite workable. Would not the work of the afternoon be better done if the noon lunch were made more enjoyable? Would the ratepayers object to supplying the dishes and the materials for something hot to go with the cold lunch, which is not infrequently frozen on the way to school? The place to begin to improve the conditions of country life is in the schools.

Usually, during the noon hour in the "old red school house," two of the students were required to sweep the floor. It was vigorously, if not carefully, swept, because there was a not unreasonable desire on the part of the sweepers to get out to play; and the broom marks on the

dusty floor were distinctly visible when school reassembled at the end of the noon hour. The floor was scrubbed only during the holidays, at mid-summer, Easter, and Christmas. When the pupils objected to sweeping the school room, the care of the building devolved upon the teacher, who, perhaps, paid a boy to do the necessary work. This primitive system has been generally replaced by the employment of some one living near the school to act as caretaker.

When children look upon the school in the proper spirit, they will take as much pride in caring for it as they would in caring for their own homes. Then, on the other hand, caring for their school is the most direct way of developing the proper school spirit. In addition to assisting in keeping the school clean, the pupils should also assist in keeping it sanitary by disinfecting the seats and articles of common use with formaldehyde. Such disinfection is an excellent lesson in hygiene, which may be given for the last ten minutes each day to the classes in turn. With the gradually increasing prominence of household science in our schools, it is natural that the pupils, especially the girls, should take part in the care of the class room; nor will the bovs suffer any loss of dignity if they also do their share.

Teacher and pupils often put forth efforts to secure good pictures, and then, for the lack of a few moment's attention each week, allow them to gather dust and germs until they become a menace to health. Pupils should practise the laws of sanitation, as well as learn them. The principle involved is, that social efficiency can be developed only by present social service. In cases where parents object to their children doing so-called menial work, the class will deal with such cases satisfactorily when it has developed the proper social spirit.

RELATION BETWEEN TEACHER AND PUPIL

The improvement of the physical conditions already mentioned prepares the way for the ideal relation between teacher and pupil, which will keep the child moving at a normal rate towards the end in view, as a result of the child's own self-activity. It is well to remember that education began with adults, and worked backwards from adults to children. The adult's desire for a better state, accompanied by a sense of the limitation of his own power to attain that better state, led him to look about for some means of securing an education, and he naturally selected some one superior to himself in the particular line along which help was desired. The student selected his own teacher, and to that extent was the more responsible party. This relation of student and teacher, in which the student was striving for a better state and the teacher was helping him to attain it, was the primitive school organization.

With lapse of time, parents realized that it was a mistake to neglect education during childhood. They saw that the child, during his period of dependency, could be educated, and thus education was pushed back to the child stage, the parent, not the pupil, securing the teacher. In this way the responsibility was shifted from the pupil to the parent, where it still remains. The parents are represented by the trustees. This view of education unites parents, trustees, children, and teacher in the one purpose of leading the child towards the ideal state, which the child himself does not yet even vaguely comprehend. But as the responsibility of securing the teacher has been shifted upwards to the parents, it becomes the duty of the teacher to shift the ideal state downward, so that the child will comprehend it and desire

it. While the child cannot image, and if he could, would not comprehend, the high ideal which parents and teachers have in mind, yet he is capable of imaging and comprehending a state in advance of his existing state, and it becomes the teacher's duty to place this before him in such a manner that he may day by day cherish the desire to "grow from more to more."

When the majority of parents had realized their duty to their children, those parents who failed to do so were looked upon with disfavour. With the growing realization of the importance of an educated community, means of bringing these neglectful parents to a sense of their duty were devised, until the governing body of the State finally passed a law compelling all parents to educate their children. From time to time laws have been passed making child labour illegal. At present the State has no small duty to perform for the education of its children, and, with lapse of time, it will assume more and more authority in educational matters. The tendency of State control will be towards equal opportunity for all children. This means special schools for the deaf, the blind, and other defectives. It means the more rigid enforcement of sanitary laws and adoption of medical supervision. It means that, for specified periods, parents must surrender the entire control of their children to the State, on the principle that the good of society as a whole comes before the pleasure of the individual.

The teacher should never forget that the pupil's interests are paramount, and that the school is only secondary. While this truth is too apparent to need discussion, it is, nevertheless, often overlooked in the management of the average school, not wilfully, perhaps, but in response to the demands of ordinary school routine, which seem more pressing at the time. Even the best teachers need to

resist this tendency to yield to the mechanizing influence of daily routine, rather than to give their best attention to the constant adjustment required by living, growing, developing children.

The ideal school government not only looks towards the day when severe disciplinary measures will be unnecessary, because the work of the school will so appeal to the child's interests as to secure his heartiest efforts, but it also aims at active co-operation on the part of the pupil with the teacher and with the other pupils. As the pupil advances in age, he should assume a greater share in the responsibility of helping to make the work of the school efficient. The work of the teacher in this regard should consist largely in checking evil tendencies and in seeing that the individual pupils do not infringe upon the rights of others.

RELATION OF SCHOOL AND HOME

That the school and the home are related is evident. Children carry the spirit of the home into school with them every day, and they return at night, carrying with them the spirit of the school. It is evident that the maintenance of a right spirit between home and school will aid progress towards the desired end. Differences of spirit in home and school will call for adjustment on the part of the pupils twice every day, thus causing waste. If children bear their share of responsibility in the home, it will be easy for them to bear their share in the school. If they are trained to take part in the duties of school life, it will be easy for them to perform their share of the home duties. It is important, therefore, that the home and the school should supplement each other in educating the child.

What can be done by teacher and parents in order to establish co-operation between the school and the home? Manual training and household science tend to promote the co-operative spirit, as work in these subjects has a vital relation to the home life of the children. Visiting in the homes of the children will also develop this spirit. This is more feasible in rural sections than in urban centres; but, wherever possible, teachers should come into contact with the children and their parents in the homes.

Another important link between the home and the school is a well-conducted school garden. In this garden, work should be done which will be of benefit to the home gardens and to the agricultural interests of the district. This will stimulate the parents to come to the school to see what is being done. Anything that will bring the parents to the school will promote co-operation. There should be associations of the parents for definite school work, such as supplying pictures, improving the grounds, and adding to the library. Entertainments by the children always attract the parents. Exhibits of school work are also excellent attractions.

RELATION OF THE SCHOOL TO THE COMMUNITY

The school building should be open to the public during certain hours after school, in the evenings, and on Saturdays. Where there is no public library, there should be an adult section in the school library. This should be controlled by a local association, the teacher acting as head librarian. Some of the older pupils should be appointed assistant librarians, to be in attendance at stated hours. A visit to the now famous Rittenhouse school at Jordan Harbour, Ontario, on a Sunday afternoon, revealed a striking contrast to the primitive school house with its barren grounds which the pupils used to

leave on Friday at four o'clock with shouts of unrepressed joy at being able to keep their faces turned from it until Monday morning. The Rittenhouse school building was open; and children were enjoying themselves in the school garden and on the lawn among the flower beds. Two medical students were examining an up-to-date physiological chart, which stood on a convenient easel. Others inspected the various parts of the building, which contained a bird and insect collection, an observation beehive, and a manual training room in the basement, with all the tools left in their places on the benches. All came away feeling that at least one school section in Ontario has an ideal educational centre for young and old alike.

Rittenhouse did more than build a school house for his home section. He set up a standard for the whole Province to strive for, and any one who now visits the Niagara Peninsula learns that dozens of sections have already built and equipped, at their own expense, school buildings far superior to the Rittenhouse school, which, although once a model, has, with lapse of time, become unsuited to new ideals. What is needed is a Rittenhouse, or, better still, a progressive board of trustees, in every township, who will give practical demonstration of what a first-class school building and grounds mean to any section. Serious objection to the cost of education will not be made, if the people see that money is wisely spent and that they receive an adequate return for the outlay. A school, open the year round, a community centre for all the people in the section, is one of the greatest factors in training for good citizenship that can be conceived.

At present the school serves as a meeting place for the ratepayers once a year at the annual meeting, which is attended by only a few men. The next decade should see every school house in Ontario, both in the country and in

the city, become a centre for the improvement of the community. There should be literary meetings, debates, spelling matches, musical entertainments, art lectures, science lectures, socials, picnics, and all the other features that at present are left to other organizations of either a public or a private nature. Many changes must be made if the school is to become such a centre. It will have to be well lighted for evening meetings, kept clean at all times, and suitably furnished and decorated. In the country, a shed will be needed for the horses. A musical instrument of some kind will be indispensable. The smaller seats, at least, must be movable, and chairs must be provided for the adults.

Such a change is already under way in many rural communities in response to modern demands, as we have seen in such cases as the Rittenhouse school, mentioned above. The Governor of Minnesota has undertaken to improve the rural schools in his state by consolidating several small schools with an attendance of ten or fifteen pupils into one school with an attendance of seventy-five to one hundred and fifty. "To-day, less than three years after the beginning of the movement, Minnesota has sixty-one of these consolidated rural schools, besides thirty agricultural high schools, and about one hundred and fifty applications for institutions of the kind are impending." Liberal state aid is granted to assist consolidation. The changes introduced are thus described:

> The education of the farmers' children is substantially the same as that of the children of the city, in addition to being more practical. Instruction is given in agriculture, manual training, sewing, and cooking. Teachers in all these branches are provided by the state, and I have found that the children are thus gaining a far higher idea of the dignity of labour, and are losing much of their former desire to go to the city and be "ladies" and "gentlemen," rather than be farmers or farmers' wives.

For the combined benefit of the farmers and the children of their families, Minnesota has injected a large dose of the social element into her new school system, and it is the adoption of this novel idea, more than anything else, that will keep her farmers at home, and prevent her young folks from drifting cityward. The schoolhouses that used to be dark and untenanted at night are now ablaze with light, and gay with the sound of music and song. There are frequent entertainments at the schools—illustrated lectures, moving pictures, concerts, athletic entertainments, and the like—and each community is thus enabled to provide its own amusement at a comparatively negligible cost, something which was impossible when there was no common meeting place for the residents of the surrounding country and no experienced teachers and leaders to organize the social movement. Every schoolhouse now has its own library of current and classic fiction, in addition to the usual reference books for the use of the scholars during school hours. Pianos have been installed in most of the schools, and musical entertainments have been taken up by practically all the young folks as one of the most satisfactory methods of passing the long winter evenings.

Our present plan is to have the school boards of every community own a number of educational moving picture films, which may be rented to other schools for a nominal fee, just sufficient to pay the cost of their transportation and up-keep; and I hope that, through the medium of the "movies," the outlying districts of my state will be educated in scenes which they would otherwise never see. While these films will at first be largely of an instructive character only, I also hope to have it so arranged that every schoolhouse will operate its own moving picture machine and thus be enabled to portray pictures of an entertaining type, which it could rent for comparatively small sums—if necessary, charging a small admission for the privilege of seeing these presented. I sincerely believe in the educational and entertaining value of moving pictures, when properly supervised, and I think that their introduction into Minnesota's schools will be a great aid towards keeping her young people at home—for entertainment is what they crave, and the combination of social opportunities, concerts, and moving pictures will give them all the healthful entertainment which they would find in the cities.

In the warmer months of the year the boys and young men of the communities will be trained in athletic sports, and competition between neighbouring towns or schools fostered to the utmost degree. At the same time the feminine portion of the school will be given lessons in the proper care of the home, interior decoration, and the like; and classes in geology, botany, and other "out-door studies" will be organized, if enough interest is evinced in these subjects.

Thus Minnesota is taking care of her next generation of farmers—and taking care that they are brought up to be farmers. The drift of population from the farms to the cities must be checked. Already there is a great scarcity of workers in the fields, and, with the crops every year increasing by millions of bushels, the need for men capable of harvesting them is ever greater, and when the soil is made to return its best possible yield, the problem will be even more difficult.

I can see no solution for the question but to make country life more attractive and, to my mind, the Minnesota method is the only one. It is practicable and comparatively easy of accomplishment. Although we have been using it but three years, the farmers throughout the state are intensely gratified at its results, and are clamouring for more schools of the same kind. They realize that the new system keeps their children at home, that it offsets the hunger for city life which is at the bottom of the lack of men in the rural sections, and it assures a large, well-educated country population for the future. And the cost is negligible. It might cost more in a state not fortunate enough to possess a school fund of the magnitude of that which Minnesota has—but what if it does cost more? It is worth it many times over.

CHAPTER IX

ORGANIZATION

ORGANIZATION means "bringing into systematic connection and co-operation all the units as parts of a whole." As already stated, it includes seating and classifying the pupils, arranging the equipment, planning the daily programme, keeping the record of attendance and work, assigning duties, and giving instruction to the pupils. A school is properly organized when teacher and pupils are placed under the best possible conditions for doing effective work without waste of time or energy.

SEATING OF PUPILS

First, the pupils must be brought together and given places in the class room. Each pupil should have a seat suited to his size and conveniently placed in relation to the teacher. A definite place should be assigned for each pupil's clothing, either in lockers or on hooks in the cloak room. Further, when pupils are required to work at the board, a definite place should be assigned to each, so that special instructions need not be given on each occasion.

Careful attention to the seating of pupils will prevent much disturbance. Having allowed the pupils to seat themselves on the first day, on the understanding that a rearrangement will be made, the teacher should make a close study of his pupils in order to seat them where each can work to the best advantage. Suitable seats should be found for those with defective sight or hearing. The various temperaments of the pupils should be considered; mischievous pupils should be kept apart; pupils whose

attention is easily distracted should be given front seats, so that they will not see much that goes on in the class room; while pupils who like to show off should be placed at the back of the room. Restless pupils do less harm when placed in the outside rows, while the "sly" pupils should be placed where they can be easily kept under observation. It is wise to reseat pupils occasionally in order that all should have equal advantages and that necessary changes may be made without the pupils being aware of the teacher's reasons therefor. In rural schools the possible variations are much fewer than in urban schools, but even there a close study of the character and needs of each pupil will help the teacher to seat pupils advantageously.

GRADING OF PUPILS

Pupils are usually classified according to their advancement, their standing being determined by an examination on that part of the course already covered. Those who succeed in securing a certain percentage on each subject and on the total are promoted to the next higher grade. Other factors should be taken into consideration, such as age, skill, ability, health, experience, home conditions, and desire to work. If allowed to classify themselves, children will usually associate with those of nearly their own age. A teacher, experienced in conducting boys' clubs, says: "It is impossible to run a club successfully where the members' ages vary too greatly. If a settlement or school wishes to cover the ground of club education thoroughly, it should maintain separate clubs for boys from eight to ten; from ten to twelve; from twelve to fourteen; from fourteen to sixteen; and from sixteen to twenty." The ideal range of age in any given class in school, therefore, would seem to be three years;

for example, some pupils at six, some at seven, and some at eight, with those at the mean age predominating. In many public schools there has been found as wide a range as five and six years in nearly all grades. The accompanying table is fairly typical:

Age.....	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	years
Sr. First.....	9	19	8	6	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	pupils
2nd.....	1	8	15	14	2	2	.....	.....	.....	"
3rd.....	.....	.....	10	8	10	9	6	1	.....	"
4th.....	.....	.....	.....	1	8	10	12	9	1	"

Of course it is possible that a pupil ten years of age may be in some respects the mental equal of one at fifteen years, but it is quite certain that sufficient differences exist to make their complete co-operation in their work impossible. In nearly every case it would be wise to leave the younger children in a lower grade and to place the older ones in a higher grade, even at the sacrifice of the examination standard. With proper attention to individual instruction, these children would profit more in classes with children nearer their own age, and the older pupils would, in all probability, remain a year longer in school if placed in the higher grade.

In exceptional cases, especially with older pupils, when the home environment is especially favourable, it is wise to take into consideration such a condition as an unusual desire to advance. For example, a pupil who had passed the examination for promotion to the Junior Fourth grade was allowed to take up the work of this grade under a private tutor during the summer months, and having satisfied the principal of her fitness for the Senior Fourth grade, was placed in that grade in September, where she did satisfactory work. By covering the

work of the Junior Fourth grade in this way, this pupil passed the entrance examination a year sooner. The system of classification must be elastic enough to meet the needs of all kinds of children.

As already mentioned, classification is usually determined by some form of written examination, although modifications of this method are in use in Ontario schools. In some city systems, the teacher reports the names of those who in his judgment are prepared, and these are promoted without further question, while the others are given the privilege of demonstrating their fitness by writing on an examination. In others, the class standing has equal value with the final written examination and, from the results of both, the pupils' fitness for promotion is determined. A third method is to promote all those who secure honour standing during the term without any examination; to examine those who secure over sixty per cent. in the subjects of arithmetic, spelling, writing, and reading only; and to require those who are below sixty per cent. in their term work to write upon an examination in all subjects. In rural schools it is customary for the inspector to set uniform examination papers for the promotion of pupils in his inspectorate. On the results of this examination, judged by the teacher, promotions are made. If sufficient reasons are given by the teacher for promoting a pupil who has failed, the inspector is usually willing to accept such recommendation.

Since all the classes are under one teacher in rural schools, the classification may well be less rigid in them than in urban schools. A pupil who is weak in only one subject may be required to recite with classes in two separate grades. Thus a Form III pupil who failed in geography only might be promoted to a Form IV class on condition that he should recite in geography with the

Form III class until he had mastered that part of the course. One of the advantages of having more than one class under the charge of one teacher in urban schools is that it provides the conditions for greater elasticity in classification. At present, pupils are too frequently adjusted to a course of study, whereas the course of study should be adjusted to the pupils' development. Pupils in every class progress at different rates, if their natural advancement has not been interfered with; hence there is necessity for constant readjustment, if the individual pupil is to receive due consideration. He should be transferred to another class at such time as is best for him, rather than at the time that is convenient for the teacher.

Owing to defects in the system of class instruction, many are advocating a return to the old plan of individual instruction. But all instruction is largely individual in character; to teach a class is to teach the individuals composing it. If the class is properly graded, each pupil will get as much benefit as if he had a teacher of his own; for the loss he sustains through lack of individual attention will be made up to him through the stimulus of association with his classmates. The good teacher knows how to engage every pupil in the class profitably, and is, therefore, teaching each individual pupil. Every class, however, has members who need other instruction than that given to the class as a whole. A suggestion given privately is frequently the means of opening up a new avenue of thought for the pupil. Individual treatment of a child's difficulties and failures is usually very effective; the teacher should make a judicious distribution of his time and energy between class teaching and individual instruction. In order to obtain the best results, a teacher of one grade should not have charge of more than forty pupils.

There is greater stimulus when there is variation in age, mentality, skill, and knowledge in the school room; but the rural school, with its many grades, carries this variation to the extreme. A room with two grades, such as a Senior Form II and a Junior Form III class, with fifteen or sixteen pupils in each class, would seem to supply the ideal conditions in this respect; this plan not only permits the class work to proceed by alternations of recitation and study, but also provides stimulus and variety. Under the one-class plan the pupils are likely to receive too much teaching and too little time for independent work. When there are more than two classes in a room, the study periods become longer than the pupils can profitably employ, while the time allotted for the recitations is not sufficient for a proper presentation of the subject. If the maximum of efficiency is reached with two classes in a room, it is evident that every additional class lowers the efficiency. This suggests that something should be done to improve the classification of the rural schools, where there are frequently eight or nine grades under one teacher.

If a flexible system of grouping were introduced, not more than five grades would be needed in any rural school. It may be a convenience for the teacher to divide the school into eight or nine grades, but such multiplication of classes is contrary to the true interests of the child, and there will be less friction and less waste with five grades than with eight. Moreover, the school with five grades offers additional advantages of a positive character, not the least of which is the greater opportunity given the teacher for observing and directing the individual work of the pupils. In these schools it is frequently possible to further lessen the number of classes by grouping two or more of them in certain subjects. The whole school may

frequently be engaged in the general exercises, such as singing, writing, and drawing, while the combination of two or three classes in language, nature study, geography, and manual work is possible, and often desirable. The operation of this principle of grouping, and the reduction of the number of grades, would enable the teacher to meet more fully the individual needs of the pupils.

METHODS OF CLASSIFICATION

Of the many special plans of classification, the following are the most important:

THE SHORT INTERVAL PLAN

By this plan provision is made for the promotion of children of the junior grades every five or six weeks. It is based on the belief that children differ greatly in their ability to do the work of the grades, and that these different rates of progress should be met by frequent reclassification. The classes are not promoted as wholes; only the bright pupils who have demonstrated their fitness are allowed to proceed to the next class.

Such a plan requires that the course of study should be divided into parts of suitable length for the time chosen in making promotions. If promotions are to be made every ten weeks, the ordinary yearly programme should be divided into four parts, each part to be covered in the time specified, after which promotions would be made. It is evident that final examinations could not be used to determine promotion, as they would demand too much time, and accordingly the work done in the class would form the basis of promotion. One great advantage of such a plan is that the pupil who fails to be promoted will need to repeat only ten weeks' work, whereas under the usual plans he has to repeat the work of five months

or a year. Some may contend that ten weeks' courses encourage superficiality and oblige pupils to have a change of teachers too frequently. But each part of the course under any system has to be dealt with in time proportioned to its length, and, with two groups under each teacher, a pupil would be under one teacher for five months at least. Moreover, there is the possibility of having teachers advance with their classes, so that the majority of the pupils might remain under the same teacher for two or three years, which is very desirable under any plan of promotion. The most evident disadvantage of this plan, under our educational system, and one for which it is difficult to suggest a remedy, is that the classes preparing for entrance to the high schools could not absorb their incoming pupils at such frequent intervals, without a complete dislocation of the courses of study.

THE GROUP SYSTEM

In the group system, the class is divided into groups according to their general standing. The number of groups will depend upon the size of the class, its grade, and the character of the work to be done. A primary grade of thirty or forty pupils may be profitably divided into three or four groups. The plan is carried out in two ways: on the basis of the constant group or on the basis of the shifting group. Under the former plan, the pupils remain in the group for a definite period, the promotions taking place at stated times. A child's membership in any particular group is determined by his ability. Under the shifting group plan, which is more flexible, the aim is to give special help and encouragement to the slow pupil, while giving opportunity for the bright pupil to advance more rapidly, as promotions of individual pupils may be

made at any time. The pupils are not in the same groups in all subjects, nor is the membership of any group necessarily constant.

In the multigraded rural school, the principle of grouping two or more classes will help to solve the difficulty of finding time to teach all classes. Writing, drawing, and singing may be taken by all classes at the same period of the day. Hygiene may be taught to Form II and Form III classes together, or to Form III and Form IV classes. Three classes in history should be sufficient in the average school, and other subjects may be taught to larger groups than the regular classification provides. In no better way can the difficulties connected with many grades under one teacher be met.

It has been stated that pupils are properly graded only when each member of the class is able to co-operate with the others to his own advantage. It is extremely difficult to secure perfect adjustment for every pupil. Even under the most favourable conditions it is rarely accomplished. Constant re-classification must be made, for scarcely a day passes without disturbing the homogeneity of the group to some extent. This fact emphasizes the value of the group system. Whenever the graded system fails to place the child in his proper class or group, it sacrifices the child to the system. If examinations were not considered so important, there would undoubtedly be greater flexibility in the mode of classifying school children. With the introduction of the group system, and the modification of examinations, teachers could classify the children according to their individual needs.

THE INDIVIDUAL PLAN

According to this plan, which was devised in the interests of the weak pupil who is so often discouraged by the

class system, each pupil in a class is going ahead as fast as he is able. It must be admitted that this plan is impracticable with large classes. The system permits each pupil to proceed at his own rate in the various subjects, and allows him to call upon the teacher for help only when he meets with problems he cannot solve. Although the plan has some points of merit, it is rarely adopted in this country.

THE BATAVIA SYSTEM

The Batavia system, which is a compromise between the class and individual systems, has practically all the advantages of the individual plan and none of its disadvantages. It combines class teaching and individual help in such a way as to meet the needs of every pupil in the class. Moreover, the Batavia system accommodates itself to both large and small classes, making provision for two teachers when necessary.

Superintendent Kennedy, who introduced this system into the schools at Batavia, New York, describes the plan as follows in his Report for 1912:

> The plan is in full operation here, and is well started on its fourteenth year of use. It may, therefore, be said to have stood the test of time. Its popularity at the outstart was instantaneous. The people understood it at once and applauded it. It never had to fight its way. It is a reform without martyrs. At present I see no abatement of its popularity, and we know of families who have moved into town because of it.
>
> Our plan has the two-teacher phase and the one-teacher phase. In rooms containing more than fifty children we have two teachers, one giving class instruction continually to classes reciting alternately, and the other teacher giving individual attention all the time to slow and backward children. In rooms containing fewer than fifty children, we have but one teacher.

> But this teacher gives half her periods of time to the needs of individuals. This phase of the plan permits its extension and use under all conditions. It has furnished the solution for the problem of individualizing the high school. We have a general individual teacher in the high school; and in addition to that each teacher there gives half her periods to individualizing. This is the policy at present.

The results claimed by the originator of the Batavia system may be summarized briefly as follows:

The pupils and teachers are relieved of strain and worry in their work. As a result, their health is improved rather than injured by school work.

The pupils are constantly occupied either in work under the direction of the teacher or in their own independent study. As a result, order is much improved, and there are fewer cases of discipline.

The backward child is encouraged and is brought up to the required standard in his own class, without the humiliation of being segregated.

The pupil gains power to solve his own difficulties by being questioned during the individual instruction period. The individual teacher "does nothing but ask questions."

A visit to the Batavia schools, however, would produce the conviction that these results are secured when the teachers are competent, but that equally good results may be obtained under other systems; that, in fact, the teacher is more important than the system. No teacher, however, should hesitate to adopt the plan of dividing the time given to class recitation between class teaching and individual instruction, in the proportion which experience proves to be necessary. In rural schools, the usual periods for class recitations are so short that most of the time is needed for class teaching. In these schools

certain periods each day should be set apart for individual instruction for the whole school.

CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

The difficulties in the way of a perfect system of classification in the rural school cannot be readily overcome. In fact, consolidation seems to offer the only practical remedy. Consolidation, or centralization, does not necessarily mean that all the children of school age in a township must attend one school centrally located. Some townships may establish two or three consolidated schools. The plan has met with great success in the United States, especially in the States of Massachusetts, Ohio, and Indiana, where a large proportion of the rural school children attend consolidated schools.

Consolidation offers many advantages. It gives all children practically equal opportunities for both elementary and secondary education. It solves the problem of grading, promotes regularity of attendance, and makes it possible to secure better teachers. It means greater economy in school buildings and equipment, more thorough inspection, better roads, and enlarged opportunity for instruction in the new studies; and one of the most important considerations is that the pupils will arrive at the school, especially in the winter season, in a condition of greater comfort, and better fitted for work. In a word, consolidation aims at giving each pupil all the educational advantages of the city or town, while preserving for him the possibly greater advantages of rural life.

The plan of consolidation, notwithstanding its many advantages, has not been adopted in Ontario to any great extent. Like other new movements, consolidation must pass through periods of apathy and opposition but, in the

end, it will no doubt be accepted as the best plan for giving the children of our rural communities educational opportunities of the highest value. In his bulletin on the *Consolidated Schools of the United States*, George W. Knorr, Special Field Agent, Bureau of Statistics, in the United States Department of Agriculture, says:

> During the past five years more consolidated schools have been established in the United States than during the twenty-five years preceding. Consolidation gains a foothold chiefly where civic ambition and high educational ideals establish high standards and determine to maintain them. With the advent of the consolidated school, the high school, very properly named "the people's college," is placed within easy reach of the country child. If, as economists assert, we are approaching the point where the industrial position of a nation will be determined by the length of the instructional period of its children, the addition of from two to four years to the school life of each of several million country boys and girls has a profound meaning.

J. C. Sutherland, Inspector-general of Protestant Schools in the Province of Quebec, in a recent article on *A National Purpose in Education*, says:

> The standing problem in every Province, with varying degrees of urgency, is to provide competent instructors for the thousands of small group schools scattered over the whole country. It is these small schools which are, in general inefficient.
>
> The one grand remedy is school consolidation. General success with the small group schools is a proved impossibility. With the expansion of the country it is becoming more and more impossible. But with half a dozen or more of such schools united into a central one, there is new life and purpose, not only for the teacher, but for the pupils and the whole community. This is not theory but demonstrated fact.

In Manitoba alone, however, is the plan fully alive at the present moment (May, 1915). There the pupils are conveyed distances of seven, eight, and even ten and eleven miles. The Department of Education reports a greatly increased average attendance among the results so far obtained, in spite of these long distances.

Everywhere that the system has had a fair trial other beneficial results have followed. The younger pupils are conveyed in comfort distances of four and five miles. The consolidated school ensures a livelier local interest, better equipment, more advanced instruction, a larger school library, and a community centre for the people. Above all, its more general adoption in Canada would afford the grand means of taking up in earnest and efficiently the teaching of the elementary principles of agriculture in our rural schools, on larger and more satisfactory lines.

In his annual Report for 1910, the Minister of Education for the Province of Manitoba says:

The consolidated school is proving a success, and there seems to be no doubt that it is along this line we must move if we expect to reach a solution of our rural school problems.

CARE OF ABNORMAL CHILDREN

Our schools are organized to meet the needs of the normal child. The normal, the subnormal, and the gifted are often found in the same class. This is especially true in cities where the foreign element constitutes a large percentage of the population. Those who have investigated the problem have discovered that about four per cent. of the children in the public schools possess mental power so superior to the average child as to demand special classes and courses of study for their proper development; that at least one per cent. are so feeble-minded as to need special schools; and that from seven to

fifteen per cent. are so backward as to need supplementary teaching and personal help. The needs of the gifted pupils may be met by broadening the course of study for them and by promoting them more frequently than others. The needs of the mentally-deficient children demand special treatment in schools or institutions designed especially for them. Backward, dull, and stupid children should be placed in special classes under expert teachers. Several large cities are adopting this plan. Care must be taken to distinguish between the backward pupil and the mental defective. In the opinion of most educationists, inability to advance in the school work at the average rate is not necessarily an evidence of mental defect. Binet, Simon, and Dr. Goddard maintain that a child who is three years behind the average pupil of his age may be regarded as mentally defective.

UNGRADED CLASSES IN GRADED SCHOOLS

While communities are now being aroused to the necessity of making provision for the care and education of children who are abnormal, in a greater or less degree, there is another class of children who are normal and mentally bright, but who, for various causes, are frequently retarded in their studies. These also should receive consideration.

At the beginning of the school year, which is the regular time for promoting pupils, the principals and teachers of graded schools are confronted with a problem that is not easy of solution. There are always pupils on the border line, who, sometimes through neglect of work, but often through no fault of their own, have not reached the required standard in one or more of the subjects of study. What is to be done with them? Are they to be advanced to a class where they will struggle against odds for a time,

only to be discouraged in the end? Or, are they to become equally discouraged by being obliged to repeat the work of the previous year?

Under the present system in graded schools, one or the other of the unsatisfactory alternatives mentioned must be adopted, unless a middle course can be found. One way to overcome the difficulty would be to have at least one ungraded class in every graded school. All pupils who are backward in one or more studies would be placed in this class, where they would have an opportunity to make up their deficiencies and be passed on to the higher class. Those failing to do so within a reasonable time would be obliged to repeat the year's work of the lower class. This ungraded class should not be large—about twenty in number—and the pupils would receive more individual instruction and more help to overcome difficulties, than they could possibly receive in the regular grades. In this class could also be placed at any time pupils from the graded classes, who, through absence or other causes, may have fallen behind. It would be a sort of transitional or probationary class, in which pupils would be tested and passed on. This plan is being adopted in some places with very satisfactory results. Striking testimony to its advantages has come from pupils who have been "tried out" in this way.

CARE OF THE INDIVIDUAL

In all systems of organization, free play must be allowed for the development of the individual. He must not be lost sight of in the mass. There is a tendency in class-teaching to trammel independent thinking and the development of self-initiative and self-mastery. Within the restrictions imposed by a highly-graded system, where a large number of pupils are all taught day after day, for

nine or ten months, the same lessons in the same subjects, and then subjected to the same tests, and transferred in a body to another teacher, and then another, where they are subjected, at each stage, to a similar process, there seems to be little opportunity for individual aptitudes and powers to manifest themselves. It may be true that, in the training for complete social efficiency, the highest possible development of the individual is implied; but completeness of training also implies the existence of perfect conditions under which the training is conducted, and this cannot be found in any human organization.

Even the most intelligent and sympathetic teacher needs to exercise great care and watchfulness to avoid the danger of overlooking those manifestations of special characteristics which mark out a pupil as possessing an individuality distinct from others—the qualities, in fact, that give him personality. If then, such powers of discrimination belong only to the highest type of teacher, how many must be the mistakes in judgment for which the ordinary teacher is responsible. Many a boy has been marked "bad" as a pupil merely because of wrong environment. The formal studies of the school did not appeal to him, and he left school, ill-qualified for the duties of life. Many a boy, too, who has been regarded as stupid at school, because he had no taste for abstract studies, has proved himself to be a man of great capacity in the practical affairs of life, where he found a suitable sphere for the display of his activities, which were latent in an uncongenial environment. It is important, therefore, that the teacher should make a study of the characteristics of his pupils, to discover, as far as possible, for what sphere of usefulness in the social organization each one is best fitted by natural inclination and aptitudes.

CHAPTER X

THE FIRST DAY IN SCHOOL

EVERY teacher should endeavour to have his first day in a new school a success from every point of view, for the character of this day's work usually stamps itself on that of succeeding days. To make a mistake at the very beginning is often fatal to a teacher's success. To meet the demands of this new experience requires efficient preparation, thoughtfulness, and optimism. A careful preparation for the entire day's work must be made, for this is the key to the whole situation. A well-planned programme, carried out systematically and successfully, secures the confidence of the pupils. The teacher who knows, before he enters the school, what he is going to do during each period of the day and who is prepared for emergencies as well, has met the first condition of success. The pupils should be pleasurably and profitably employed throughout the day. To keep them busy is not enough; they should be accomplishing something worth while. It is only in this way that the true spirit of work can be aroused.

The teacher should secure the class records from the secretary of the school board, with whom they should have been left by the last teacher. He should study these records carefully in order to familiarize himself with the previous organization of the school. This knowledge will enable him to classify his pupils quickly and to assign suitable work for each class; thus no time will be lost, and the work will proceed without confusion. Every pupil will be on the alert to discover whether the teacher is master of the situation or not, hence no detail that can

contribute to his preparation should be omitted. A day spent in the neighbourhood before the opening of school, is usually productive of much good. It provides an opportunity to meet the trustees and some of the parents, and gives the teacher time to become familiar with the school and its surroundings, so that he should feel at home when school opens, and thus be in a favourable condition to do himself justice.

As a rule, it is not difficult to secure good order for the first day. The situation is new, and therefore interesting to the children. The curiosity aroused through meeting a strange teacher, the attractiveness of new lessons, the use of new devices and methods—all help to make favourable conditions for good order. This favourable attitude of the pupils gives the teacher a good opportunity to carry through the day's work in a systematic and effective manner. Although the pupils are usually in a favourable attitude, the teacher should remember that the slightest weakness exhibited in the management of the classes or in the direction of the work, is readily perceived and immediately taken advantage of by some one.

To look carefully after details, then, is an important step toward success. On the day before opening, the school property should be examined carefully with a view to observing its condition and to accepting the responsibility for its future preservation. An inventory of the material and a brief written account of the general condition of the school property may prove invaluable to the teacher later. Maps, books, brushes, and equipment generally should be placed in readiness for use. The teacher should be at the school not later than half-past eight on the morning of the opening, earlier if possible. The school room must be ready for the reception of the pupils at least fifteen minutes before opening. All black-

boards should be thoroughly cleaned before the new exercises are placed upon them. The black-board work should be neatly arranged and well executed; an attractive black-board will amply repay the teacher for any special effort spent upon it.

Nothing that will add to the comfort of the pupils should be overlooked; the teacher's efforts spent in the interests of the pupils are sure to be appreciated. Every child upon entering the room should be greeted kindly by the teacher, and, if time permits, engaged in a brief conversation, during which the teacher has an opportunity to learn the child's name at least. This greeting should be free and natural, in order to put the child at ease. It is the first means which the teacher has of indicating his personal interest in the child. It is of supreme importance that the children should receive a good impression of the teacher; it will make his own work in the school room easy, and will secure at once the good will and favour of the parents, thus providing the conditions under which success may be expected. Punctuality should be encouraged from the beginning by calling the school promptly at the time set for opening. No rough or boisterous conduct should be permitted in the class room, either before opening or at recess. If liberties are permitted the first day, the children will take them later.

When the bell rings, it is usually wise to allow the pupils to take the seats they wish, without any comment whatever. This plan satisfies the child and places upon him a special responsibility to maintain good order. It also disposes temporarily of the problem of seating the children in the quickest, quietest, and most satisfactory manner. Changes can be made later, if found necessary in the interests of individual pupils or of the school. When the pupils are seated, appropriate opening exercises

should follow. Nothing has the effect of bringing the children into good order so naturally and as promptly as the religious exercises, which invariably produce an attitude of reverence and respect on the part of the children. In this connection, it might be suggested that the teacher ought to arrange a series of interesting and connected Biblical readings for use during the term. A thoughtful selection of material would undoubtedly add interest to this important feature of the daily programme.

The devotional exercises should be followed by a brief talk by the teacher. The objects of this talk are to welcome the pupils, to make them feel at home, and to produce the impression that he has their best interests in view. The teacher should use this little talk as a means of gaining the confidence of the children by exhibiting his hearty sympathy with them. To be effective, this talk must be a frank and sincere expression of the teacher's attitude towards his pupils. Good judgment will be displayed if no reference whatever is made to rules and regulations, which too often form the subject-matter of these preliminary talks. In a quiet, unassuming, and dignified manner, the teacher should impress his pupils with the idea that he understands his business and is entering upon his work with a spirit of hopefulness.

The next step is to assign work to each class. This should be done promptly in order to avoid any opportunity for confusion. The programme for the day, which has been prepared carefully beforehand, should be put into effect. The teacher should ascertain if there are any new pupils, other than beginners, in attendance. If so, they should be properly classified. The first lesson may be taught to any class other than the primary. It is a mistake to teach the first lesson to a class of beginners.

The teacher should remember that these children are in an entirely new environment, with which they should be allowed to become familiar. Backwardness and fear usually have possession of a child who is passing through the experience of a first day in school. He deserves special consideration by the teacher, who should treat him kindly and thoughtfully; this is often done best by not calling his class too soon. Pictures and other objects of interest should be supplied these children, and these will be sufficient to occupy their attention until the first recess at least. This plan permits the child to become acquainted with his surroundings, and gives him some knowledge of school conditions. Another reason for not calling upon the beginners too early in the day is that their shyness, shown by their awkward movements in the class, or by their refusal to come to it, usually supplies much amusement to the other pupils. The first lesson taught to a class of beginners should tend to make the children forget themselves by securing their complete attention. This can be done by the study of an interesting picture or by the telling of a good story. The teacher should not expect in return a good description of the picture or a complete reproduction of the story. A keen sense of enjoyment on the part of the children is the important thing at this stage. The first day of school should be made as pleasant as possible for beginners; there should be few formal lessons, and much opportunity for play and rest. The teacher's skill and power will be nowhere better exhibited than in his treatment of these young children.

With the other classes, the lessons should be brief and varied. Physical exercises, including singing, should not be neglected. Seat work should be judiciously assigned.

The pupils must not feel that the exercises have been given just to keep them busy. Such tasks are usually repulsive to them and lead to disorder. The recitation periods should be shorter, and the recesses somewhat longer than usual. Both teacher and pupils are sooner fatigued on the first day, hence opportunity for recovery must be provided. A walk into the school yard at recess will be beneficial to the teacher, and incidentally will give the pupils a hint that he is interested in their games. To see the children at play is to get a further insight into their characters, for, as a rule, children throw off all restraint when playing, and act naturally.

The teacher should not place too much stress on the purely mechanical phases of school work during the first day. For example, he cannot expect faultless precision in all class movements, although he will expect these to be performed promptly and in an orderly manner. As each class is called to the front during the day, definite instructions should be given as to the manner of passing from the seats to the front, and these instructions should be carried out faithfully for the first few weeks, until correct habits are formed. Whatever plan the teacher intends to follow in dismissing the school should also be explained and practised the first day. Some plan of distributing wraps may be necessary in order to ensure orderly dismissal. If the pupils cannot pass through the cloak room or past their wraps in a line, monitors should be appointed to bring the wraps to them in their seats. The same monitors should take the wraps from the seats to the cloak room when school reassembles. The use of monitors for this and other duties is an admirable method of securing the co-operation of the pupils in the management of the school. It is important that the most reliable pupils should be selected for these responsible positions.

The formal calling of the roll usually gives the children an opportunity for disorder. Hence, it is better to obtain the name of each child when in class, or to place slips of paper on each desk, on which the pupils are asked to write their names and ages. These slips should be kept in the order of the rows and seats for ready reference and are a sufficient register of attendance for the first day. The teacher should make a point of doing some effective teaching of the various subjects, so that when the hour of dismissal comes, the children will feel that the first day at school has been both profitable and pleasurable. To have this impression carried into the various homes of the community is to commence work under the most favourable conditions.

Thoughtfulness is always an excellent characteristic in every teacher, but is especially serviceable in the experience of one's first day in a new school. Kind and considerate treatment is due every child. The teacher should not parade his authority, nor should he exhibit any desire to repress the pupils. Teachers often forget that children, like adults, have feelings which should be respected. No indulgence whatever is to be extended, but all should be treated with dignity, fairness, and sympathy.

The teacher should be perfectly natural in his attitude towards his pupils; an assumed manner is readily detected. The voice should also be natural, and its tone clear and cheerful. A good disciplinarian usually speaks in a quiet yet decisive manner, and is able to repress any tendency to disorder merely by changing his tone of voice or by suddenly ceasing to talk for a moment.

The aid of the pupils should be enlisted when needed. The teacher should not assume the whole responsibility for the day's work, as it deprives the children of one of

their most important rights, that of learning to do things for themselves and others. Much of the routine work required, such as keeping the room in order, watering window plants, collecting and distributing material, should be done by the children.

The thoughtful teacher will exhibit good judgment in everything he does, and will keep himself under perfect control. Good judgment and self-control are two factors that are especially required from the very beginning of a teacher's career. Both will be tested frequently during the first day. A teacher must be able to control himself before he can hope to control his pupils. Good judgment will tend to maintain right relationships.

Again, the thoughtful teacher will be particularly careful in respect to his personal appearance. Children observe very closely the dress and general bearing of the teacher. He must be dignified and neat to gain their approval. If the teacher can add to a dignified appearance an attractive personality, he has in his possession two very desirable characteristics. True dignity on the part of the teacher lends tone to every phase of school work, and demands the highest respect and admiration of the pupils.

The teacher can show his thoughtfulness in one other important direction. He should enter upon his duties free from prejudice and bias of any kind, and he should know that any teacher who permits himself to become prejudiced, or to be turned aside from the strict path of impartiality towards his pupils, is not fit to be a teacher. If first impressions of the school and community are disappointing, the teacher should not permit these to influence the character of his work or his attitude toward his pupils. It takes time to adjust one's self to a new en-

vironment, and part of the teacher's duty is to improve existing conditions. In any event, judgment should be suspended for the time being. Above all, the teacher must not at any time harbour a prejudice against any child. There is usually some one in every community willing and anxious to give the names of children whom the last teacher found difficult to control, but the new teacher should refuse to be influenced by tales of this kind. His sense of justice ought to demand that for every child there must be equal advantages in starting work. Moreover, the children who were difficult to control in the past may not cause any trouble to the new teacher. Abundant evidence can be found to support this statement; for example, in one city school, a certain teacher complained frequently to the principal of the conduct of a boy who caused her trouble throughout the whole term. The boy was promoted at the end of the year, and the next teacher had no trouble with him at all. In fact, he was considered one of her best behaved pupils. The change was due very largely to the fact that the new teacher obtained a deeper insight into the boy's nature and was able to enter into greater sympathy with him. The teacher should study each child for himself and endeavour to secure the co-operation of his pupils by establishing right relations with them.

The teacher must be optimistic; he must have faith in himself, and resourcefulness in emergencies. He must expect success and work hard to attain it. Optimism exerts a constant uplifting influence upon children. It means wholesome play and hard work. It means a bright day in the school room, no matter how gloomy it may be outside. It means patience in teaching the dull pupil, and sympathy in dealing with the one that has offended.

It acts as a stimulus to good conduct. The teacher owes it to himself to cultivate a spirit of optimism and to get the best possible out of every day. He should study to absorb and emanate a spirit of cheerfulness. The optimist has a far better chance of succeeding than the pessimist. At all times during the first day, and every day, the teacher should concentrate his attention upon the duty in hand, and at no time should he worry over the mistakes of the past or be over-solicitous about the future. A happy, enthusiastic disposition overcomes many obstacles, creates a cheerful atmosphere, and stimulates the pupils to put forth their best efforts. Many emergencies will arise during the day, and some surprises may await him; but the teacher who exhibits a genuine interest in his school, and who conducts the work in a thoughtful and optimistic manner, is on the high road to success.

CHAPTER XI

THE TIME-TABLE

A GOOD time-table shows how the pupils of each grade are to be employed during each period of the day, both in class and at their seats. This enables the teacher to keep every pupil of every grade profitably engaged throughout every work period. The prescription of definite work for each pupil to do at a definite time not only prevents disorder, but acts as a strong directive and regulative force. It economizes time and provides the conditions under which the work can be done with the least friction and confusion, thus ensuring the largest possible benefit to each pupil. If properly carried out, it has also a moral value, as it promotes habits of punctuality, methodical application, and prompt attention.

The importance of directing the movements of the whole school in accordance with a systematic time schedule cannot be over-emphasized. The teacher should have settled definitely each day before opening school the work upon which each class is to be employed throughout the day. He must also make out regularly for each day the plan of his own work in the several subjects, and its preparation will be found to be one of his greatest sources of inspiration. Judgment in selecting and emphasizing the details is of the utmost importance. Lack of this is one of the most fruitful causes of wasted energy and of the so-called over-pressure in our schools.

FACTORS IN CONSTRUCTING TIME-TABLES

To prepare a time-table even for a graded school in which each teacher has but one grade is no easy matter; in schools where there are only one or two teachers, the difficulties increase with the number of grades. The construction in either case calls for professional skill and thorough familiarity with the conditions of what is always more or less a complex problem.

In the construction of a time-table many factors must be considered, the chief of which are the proficiency of the pupils in each subject, their capabilities at the different stages of their development, the question of fatigue, the local environment, the relative value of each subject, its scope and correlation with the other subjects, and especially the amount of time available. This last depends mainly upon the length of the noon recess, the presence or absence of one or more of the Forms, the number of grades and classes, and the limitation of the subjects of Groups II and III as provided for in Nos. 21 and 25 of the Public and Separate Schools Regulations.

The importance of most of the aforesaid factors will be obvious even to the inexperienced teacher. Two, however, require special notice here. Whilst it is impossible to formulate any general rule for determining the amount of study which may be safely undertaken by pupils at different stages of their progress, it is safe to say that pupils in the primary classes should not spend more than three hours a day in study. It is, accordingly, a good plan to provide, where practicable, half-day sessions for pupils in at least the junior grade of Form I, and, under Regulation 10 (3), Boards have authority to reduce to a minimum of half a day the hours of study of the grades below Form III. This provision may be

gradually lengthened as the pupils advance, until the limit of the full school day is reached. Excessive strain of school work causes much injury to young children.

To prevent excessive strain and at the same time to secure the maximum of efficiency, the time-table should be so constructed that the work which makes a severe tax upon the pupils shall be taught in the forenoon, and the lighter work in the afternoon. Again, the teacher must be able to distinguish between fatigue and lack of interest. Waning interest is not always a sign of fatigue, and, on the other hand, interest may for a time check the evidences of fatigue. While lessons should be long enough to train children in sustained application, they should not be carried to the point of excessive fatigue. Ten or fifteen-minute recitations are quite long enough for the average class in Form I, while those for Form IV should rarely exceed thirty minutes. For the junior pupils especially there should be periods of relaxation at frequent intervals throughout the day. Such periods should not be too closely supervised, nor should the children's play be always subject to the direction of the teacher. Fatigue results directly from the expenditure of nervous energy, and rest cannot be obtained when the attention is on the alert.

The length of the school year for the public schools of Ontario is about two hundred days, while that of the daily session is from five and a half to six hours. Thus, the pupil who attends regularly spends at least a thousand hours in school in accomplishing the work of a grade. This time will be best spent if the teacher secures vigorous effort on the part of the pupils while engaged in study. It is only through vigorous, and, in the case of the older pupils, prolonged concentration upon the work in hand

that the child reaches the maximum of his efficiency. If the attention wanders, both time and vital force are dissipated. The number of periods of relaxation might well be increased where such intensive study could be counted upon. Although a knowledge of the exact amount of time available for work is necessary in the construction of a time-table, the more vital factor in the actual working of the programme is that the time should be profitably used.

Education consists in the preparation of the individual to become an efficient member of society. Accordingly, the time allotted to the various subjects in the following time-tables is intended to represent their value in relation to the activities and needs of life; and, if properly used, it should be sufficient in each case to enable the pupils to reach the standards required by the Course of Study. If the content of the various subjects is not so related to these activities and needs, no amount of mechanical drill will make the instruction effective. A considerable saving of time will be effected through correlation, where each subject serves to amplify and explain the related subjects. Keeping in mind these general principles, the time allotted to arithmetic, spelling, writing, and grammar is less than that usually devoted to these subjects; on the other hand, rather more than the usual amount is allotted to literature, reading, and composition, in view of their superior value in promoting social efficiency. To secure the best results, spelling, language, and writing should be taught both incidentally and formally. The knowledge acquired incidentally often makes a sharper impression than that acquired in separate and formal lessons. Moreover, the Course of Study now prescribed by the Regulations of 1914 cannot be successfully

taken up unless the time hitherto devoted to the formal teaching of grammar, arithmetic, and spelling is reduced.

Having regard to the foregoing considerations, the following schedule indicates the *approximate* percentage of the pupils' total time per day of 300 minutes that should be allotted to the various subjects in a school or grade in which all these subjects are taken up:

Opening and closing exercises, 4 per cent.; English, including language and composition, literature, reading, spelling, and grammar, 34 per cent.; geography, 6 per cent.; arithmetic, 12 per cent.; history, 6 per cent.; nature study, 6 per cent.; writing, 6 per cent.; art, 6 per cent.; physical culture, 5 per cent.; vocal music, 3 per cent.; hygiene, 3 per cent.; manual training, household science, and agriculture (optional), 9 per cent.

The time specified above for the various subjects includes both recitation and seat work. In the case of arithmetic, for example, in an urban school 12 per cent. of 300 minutes or 36 minutes per day could be distributed between seat work and recitation. There should, however, be no attempt to teach all the subjects every day, but when the recitations are taken only on alternate days the length of the recitation periods should be increased. Many teachers advocate the same programme for Mondays and Wednesdays, and for Tuesdays and Thursdays, with a special programme for Fridays. In addition to allowing longer periods for recitation, this plan affords a pleasing variety and facilitates the construction of the time-table.

In schools under only one or two teachers, the number of classes presents a serious difficulty. No teacher of an ungraded school should attempt more than twenty recitations a day. This number would permit a rural school

with five grades to have four recitations each. The dismissal of the junior pupils at noon or at either intermission, and the combining of two or more grades in certain subjects, would permit the more advanced classes to have a few extra recitations. And it should be borne in mind by the teacher of the ungraded rural school in particular that, with the inspector's approval, the content of the courses in Group II—hygiene, physical culture, art, nature study, and vocal music—may be reduced, and that the subjects of Group III—book-keeping, manual training, household science, and agriculture—are at the option of school boards on the recommendation of the inspector.

These latter should be taken up only when adequate provision is made for the obligatory subjects. It will, however, be found possible, in almost every school, to conduct the work in manual training and household science provided for in No. 21, Group III, (b), of the Public and Separate School Regulations, since these subjects are of such a nature that the courses therein can be taken up largely as seat work.

MAXIMS FOR CONSTRUCTION AND USE

In the following maxims are summed up the most important considerations to be kept in mind in the construction and use of the time-table; more detailed suggestions as to the construction of time-tables, especially in schools where there are several grades under the charge of one teacher, will be found on pages 184 to 188 of this Manual:

1. Teach a subject always at the same hour of the day.
2. Make sure that every subject receives its due proportion of time.
3. Arrange studies in proper sequence.

4. Have adequate relaxation periods, especially for junior classes.

5. Assign the easiest lessons for Mondays and Fridays.

6. Have the hard work done in the forenoon. (Recent investigations show that the middle of the forenoon is the period when the best work can be done.)

7. Be careful to provide for the study periods. The time-table should indicate the seat occupation of every class and should provide for its supervision by the teacher either in special periods or occasionally during the recitation periods of other classes, according to the amount of time available.

8. In determining the amount of time to be assigned to the recitations in each subject, account must be taken of the length of the recitation periods and also of the home work assignment. The greater the amount of seat work allotted to any subject, the less home work will be necessary.

9. Keep to the time-table as closely as possible. If a determined effort is not made to do this, the teacher will be prone to give more time to his favourite subjects, and thus a habit may be formed which will tend to render the programme less effective.

10. Reserve sufficient time at the end of the recitation for the assignment of lessons and of seat work.

11. Post the time-table in a conspicuous place, and have each pupil, as soon as he is able, make out his own time-table therefrom.

It is easier to prepare a time-table that will provide the time as apportioned on page 175 for a single grade, or for a room with two grades, than for any other condition. Due consideration of such time-tables should, however, help the teacher to decide what can be done in schools

where there are more grades. The following time-table for a senior grade in Form IV, under one teacher, agrees almost exactly with the suggestions on page 175 for the division of time, it being understood that part of each period is to be given to seat work.

TIME-TABLE FOR
ONE GRADE UNDER ONE TEACHER

Time	*Mondays, Wednesdays, Fridays*	*Tuesdays, Thursdays*
9.00- 9.07—	OPENING EXERCISES	
9.07- 9.12—	Nature Study	Nature Study
9.12- 9.25—	Spelling	Spelling
9.25-10.00—	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
10.00-10.05—	Physical Culture or Vocal Music	Physical Culture or Vocal Music
10.05-10.30—	Grammar (Composition, Friday)	Grammar
10.30-10.45—	RECESS	
10.45-11.15—	History	Composition
11.15-11.30—	Writing	Writing, (or Book-keeping)
11.30-12.00—	Reading	Supplementary Reading
12.00- 1.30—	NOON	
1.30- 2.00—	Literature (Special Subject, Friday)	Literature
2.00- 2.15—	Vocal Music and Physical Culture	Vocal Music and Physical Culture
2.15- 2.30—	Nature Study	Nature Study
2.30- 2.45—	RECESS	
2.45- 3.15—	Geography	Hygiene
3.15- 3.55—	Manual Training Household Science Agriculture (optional) (Special programme, Friday)	Art
3.55- 4.00—	CLOSING EXERCISES	

NOTE 1.—In this and the other time-tables in this Manual, the nature study of the first period in the forenoon consists of a discussion of the observations made by the pupils on their way to school. Such observations should be suggested by the teacher.

NOTE 2.—The teaching of Manners and Morals is to be provided for in connection with the lessons in Literature and Supplementary Reading. Further suggestions for conducting this Course will be found on page 187 of this Manual.

An analysis of the foregoing time-table will show the percentage of time per week to each subject to be:

	mins.	mins.	
Opening and Closing Exercises	5 x 12	— 60	4%
Spelling	5 x 13	— 65	
Grammar	4 x 25	— 100	
Composition	2 x 30	— 85	34⅔%
Composition	1 x 25		
Literature	4 x 30	— 120	
Reading (inc. Supplementary)	5 x 30	— 150	
Arithmetic	5 x 35	— 175	11⅔%
Physical Culture	5 x 10	— 50	6⅔%
Vocal Music	5 x 10	— 50	
History	3 x 30	— 90	6%
Writing (or Book-keeping)	5 x 15	— 75	5%
Geography	3 x 30	— 90	6%
Nature Study	5 x 20	— 100	6⅔%
Hygiene	2 x 30	— 60	4%
Art	2 x 40	— 80	5⅓%
Manual Training, Household Science, and Agriculture (optional)	3 x 40	— 120	8%
Special Period	1 x 30	— 30	2%
Total (excluding recesses)		1,500	100%

Under certain conditions more time would, of course, have to be spent upon some subjects than is allotted to them here, but the conditions must be known in order to decide what changes to make.

ALLOTMENT OF TIME IN AN URBAN SCHOOL

Whilst it is unnecessary to construct time-tables for each of the remaining grades of a graded school, it has been thought advisable to specify the allotment of time which should be devoted to each subject in the various grades. The schedule given below has been compiled after due consideration of many time-tables and represents the best in each. In conformity with the opinion already expressed that spelling and arithmetic usually receive too great a proportion of the available time, less

time is allowed to these subjects than in many of the time-tables, but on the other hand more time is allotted to nature study, art, manual training, and household science.

The Junior grade of Form I has been given a three-quarter day only. The Senior might also be given a three-quarter day, or, at most, 1,350 minutes a week. The optional time of 150 minutes a week indicates that the latter grade may be dismissed at 3.30 daily. The other optional times, varying from twenty to sixty minutes a week, may be used by each teacher to the best advantage.

It is assumed throughout that the time allotted for any subject includes class teaching and study. The teacher should devote to independent seat work by the pupils from thirty to fifty per cent. of the total time allotted to any subject. During this time occasional individual instruction should be given to those who need it.

The table shows the time to be allotted to each subject in each grade of an urban school in minutes per week:

—	Jr. 1, ¾ day,	Sr. 1	Jr. 2	Sr. 2	Jr. 3	Sr. 3	Jr. 4	Sr. 4
Opening and Closing Exercises	75	75	75	60	60	60	60	60
Conversational Lesson (Nature Study)	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Composition	90	110	110	115	130	130	85	85
Literature	60	90	110	115	115	120	120	120
Reading (inc. Supplementary)	220	220	175	175	150	150	150	150
Spelling	70	80	90	110	100	100	90	65
Grammar	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	80	100
Geography	45	65	80	100	100	100	90	90
Arithmetic	25	150	150	150	160	175	175	175
History	20	30	60	60	90	90	90	90
Nature Study	60	75	90	90	90	75	75	75
Writing	70	70	75	90	75	75	75	75
Art	65	70	80	80	80	80	80	80
Physical Culture and Games	90	90	90	60	60	60	50	50
Vocal Music	75	75	75	75	75	75	50	50
Hygiene	50	50	60	60	60	60	60	60
Manual Training and Household Science	60	75	90	90	90	90	120	120
Optional	.....	150	65	45	40	35	25	30
Total minutes per week	1,200	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500

TIME-TABLE FOR TWO GRADES UNDER ONE TEACHER

When there are two grades in a room under one teacher, one grade should study while the other recites, and it is evident that, under this arrangement, the length of each recitation would be cut in half. But it must be remembered that it is practicable to teach in the same class certain subjects to two grades of nearly equal standing. Physical culture, music, writing, nature study, hygiene, manual training, household science, agriculture, composition, and art can be taught in this way without loss to either class. To these subjects are allotted 620 minutes a week in the one-grade time-table. This, with 60 minutes for opening and closing exercises, deducted from the total time for the week, 1,500 minutes, leaves 820 minutes for the remaining subjects of the two grades. These subjects, spelling, grammar, literature, reading, arithmetic, history, and geography, are allotted 29 periods in the one-grade time-table and would, on the same basis, require 58 periods for the two grades. This would allow an average recitation period of about 14 minutes. A judicious alternation of teaching and studying would render each of these short periods effective, especially by reducing fatigue and making possible a higher degree of concentration.

On this basis, a time-table for Junior and Senior grades of Form II or III in one room, would be as given below.

In this and the following time-tables, the days of the week are indicated by the initial letter: the sign (R) stands for Recitation and (S) for Seat work.

Time	Junior		Senior	
9.00- 9.07 . . .		OPENING EXERCISES		
9.07- 9.15 . . .	Nature Study	(R)		
9.15- 9.25 . . .	Spelling	(R)	Spelling	(S)
9.25- 9.35 . . .	"	(S)	"	(R)
9.35- 9.55 . . .	Arithmetic	(R)	Arithmetic	(S)
9.55-10.00 . . .		Physical Culture or Vocal Music		
10.00-10.20 . . .	Arithmetic	(S)	Arithmetic	(R)
10.20-10.30 . . .		Writing (R)		

Time	Junior		Senior	
10.30-10.45 . . .		RECESS		
10.45-11.00 . . .	History	(R) T. Th.	History	(R) M.W.F.
	"	(S) M.W.F.	"	(S) T. Th.
11.00-11.20 . . .		Composition (R)		
11.20-11.40 . . .	Geography	(R) M.W.F.	Geography	(R) T. Th.
	"	(S) T. Th.	"	(S) M.W.F.
11.40-12.00 . . .	Literature	(R)	Composition	(S)
12.00- 1.30 . . .		NOON		
1.30- 1.50 . . .	Composition	(S)	Literature	(R)
1.50- 2.00 . . .		Nature Study (R)		
2.00- 2.15 . . .		Vocal Music and Physical Culture (R)		
2.15- 2.30 . . .		Hygiene (R)		
2.30- 2.45 . . .		RECESS		
2.45- 3.05 . . .	Reading	(R)	Reading or Literature	(S)
3.05- 3.25 . . .	Reading or Literature	(S)	Reading	(R)
3.25- 3.55 . . .	Manual Training, Household Science, Agriculture (optional)			M.W. (R)
	Art . . . . . (T. Th.) (R)			
	Special Programme Friday			
3.55- 4.00 . . .		CLOSING EXERCISES		

Note.—Supervision of seat work should be included as a part of the work of each recitation period. All work assigned should be examined.

TIME-TABLE FOR THREE GRADES UNDER ONE TEACHER

Now, if three grades are placed under one teacher, it is evident without any calculation that the number of teaching periods for each grade per week must be materially lessened, even when as many subjects as possible are taught together, or that the teaching period must be reduced much below what is generally accepted as a minimum. By reducing the number of recitations and by shortening the time for each, a fairly satisfactory time-table can be prepared for three grades under one teacher. Suppose that the grades are a Senior Fourth, a Junior Fourth, and a Senior Third, denominated A, B, and C below. The Senior Third does not take grammar, nor does it need as much time for history as each of the others. The time thus available should be allotted to spelling, arithmetic, and composition. Let all three classes devote the same periods to physical culture, vocal music, writing, nature study, manual training, household science, hygiene, and art. Except when otherwise speci-

fied, the time-table, which is constructed in accordance with the preceding conditions, applies to each of the five teaching days of the week. It will be found suitable for the Senior room of a two or three-teacher school.

Time	Recitation	Study
9.00- 9.07 . . .	OPENING EXERCISES	
9.07- 9.12 . . .	A.B.C. Nature Study	
9.12- 9.20 . . .	A. Spelling	B.C. Spelling
9.20- 9.27 . . .	B. Spelling	A.C. Spelling
9.27- 9.35 . . .	C. Spelling	A.B. Grammar (M., W., F.) Composition (T. Th.)
9.35- 9.50 . . .	A. Arithmetic*	B.C. Arithmetic
9.50-10.05 . . .	B. Arithmetic	A.C. Arithmetic
10.05-10.20 . . .	C. Arithmetic	A.B. Arithmetic
10.20-10.25 . . .	A.B.C. Physical Culture or Vocal Music	
10.25-10.45 . . .	A.B. Grammar (M., W., F.)	C. Geography (M. W., F.)
. . .	C. Composition (T. Th.)	A.B. Grammar (T., Th.)
10.45-11.00 . . .	RECESS	
11.00-11.15 . . .	C. History (M., W.), C. Comp. (F.)	A.B. Composition (M., W., F.)
. . .	A.B. Composition (T., Th.)	C. Composition (T., Th.)
11.15-11.30 . . .	A.B. Geography (M., W., F.)	C. History (M., W.), Comp. (F.)
. . .	A.B. History (T. Th.)**	C. Geography or History (T., Th.
11.30-11.45 . . .	A.B.C. Writing	
11.45-11.55 . . .	C. Reading . . .	A.B. Geography (M., W., F.) A.B. History (T., Th.)
11.55-12.00 . . .	Supervision of seat work, or a short drill in some subject	
12.00- 1.30 . . .	NOON	
1.30- 1.50 . . .	A. Literature (M., W., F.)	B.C. Literature (M., W., F.)
. . .	B. Literature (T., Th.)	A. C. Literature (T., Th.)
1.50- 2.00 . . .	C. Literature	A.B. Literature
2.00- 2.10 . . .	A.B.C. Vocal Music and Physical Culture	
2.10- 2.25 . . .	A.B.C. Hygiene (M., W., F.)	
. . .	A.B.C. Supplementary Reading (T., Th.)	
2.25- 2.30 . . .	Supervision of seat work, or a short drill in some subject	
2.30- 2.45 . . .	RECESS	
2.45- 3.05 . . .	A.B. Reading	C. Reading
3.05- 3.20 . . .	C. Geography (M., W., F.)	A.B. Reading (M., W., F.
. . .	A.B.C. Nature Study (T., Th.)	
3.20- 3.55 . . .	A.B.C. Manual Training, Household Science, and Agriculture (optional), (M., W.) Special lesson (F.), Art (T., Th.)	
3.55- 4.00 . . .	CLOSING EXERCISES	

*Where longer recitations in Arithmetic are desired, the work may be arranged to fall on alternate days.

**Where it is impracticable to take the Junior and Senior Fourth grades together in History, the Supplementary Reading may be taken in connection with the lessons in Reading or Literature, and the spaces saved be devoted to History.

TIME-TABLE FOR UNGRADED SCHOOLS

Many attempts have been made to construct a model time-table for an ungraded school; but the conditions vary so widely that the task is extremely difficult.

A plan to meet the usual conditions in an ungraded rural school is suggested below, by which the beginners would always be kept in a separate class, while the remainder of the school would be taken all together in some subjects; for example, writing, drawing, physical culture, and vocal music; in two groups, in other subjects, art, hygiene, and nature study; and in three or more groups in all the other subjects. These groups would vary in the different subjects, as explained in the following detailed outline of each subject, and in many schools it will probably be found necessary to reduce the number of topics and sub-topics in the subjects of Group II.

OPENING AND CLOSING EXERCISES

Subject to the provisions of No. 18 (1) of the Public and Separate School Regulations, the whole school will join in the opening and closing exercises, and singing should always be included.

VOCAL MUSIC

Something should be done in every school in the way of systematic instruction in vocal music. In any case, singing should constitute a regular part of the daily life of the school. Even singing by rote has an educational value. The older pupils should be supplied with song books from the school library, and the younger pupils should join in the singing.

WRITING

The beginners should receive instruction in writing in connection with their reading lessons and should have frequent daily opportunities of writing on the blackboard. All the other classes may be taken at the same hour daily for ten or fifteen minutes. Much of the instruction may be given in common, but each class should receive special attention in turn.

BOOK-KEEPING

Book-keeping is an optional subject, and when taken, should be closely correlated with arithmetic and writing. The class taking book-keeping should devote part of the time set apart for writing in the school to this subject. One teaching lesson a week will suffice for the formal instruction. In the arithmetic and composition of Form III and of the Junior grade of Form IV, provision is to be made for instruction in the common business forms and the simpler transactions.

PHYSICAL CULTURE

The whole school may be taken together in physical exercises in the class room. Certain pupils will need individual attention for the correction of personal defects. Judicious supervision of play during recesses may furnish some opportunity for the special training of pupils of different ages.

DRAWING

Beginners need little formal instruction in drawing, but should be encouraged to express themselves frequently in this way. All other pupils may be taken in

two classes at most for formal instruction. The subject should be closely correlated with literature, history, geography, nature study, and manual training. Under ordinary conditions, the complete course in this subject in particular cannot be taken up satisfactorily in an ungraded school.

HYGIENE

Beginners need only simple instructions regarding hygienic habits. For them, a short talk each week will suffice for instruction if there is constant supervision of their daily habits. All the other pupils may be taken in two groups, two periods a week, of ten minutes each.

NATURE STUDY

All pupils except the beginners may be grouped in two classes in nature study and given two lessons a week, of fifteen minutes each. Very properly many teachers take the first few minutes of each day for considering the observations made by pupils on the way to and from school. This consideration has been kept in mind in the construction of the time-tables in this Manual.

READING

Beginners should have at least two short lessons a day in reading. These should be correlated with literature, composition, spelling, etc. All other pupils should be grouped into as few classes as possible.

COMPOSITION

Beginners should have oral composition in connection with reading at least twice a week. All the rest of the pupils may be satisfactorily instructed in three groups in both oral and written composition.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

Beginners take neither history nor geography. All other pupils may be taught in three classes.

ARITHMETIC

Beginners may be taught their number work incidentally for the first half-year. All the rest of the pupils should be taught in four classes with daily recitations of ten or fifteen minutes each. Many short periods of two or three minutes may be utilized in mechanical drill and for oral arithmetic. Lack of appreciation of the relative value of the details has been the chief cause of the over-emphasis in this subject.

SPELLING

Form I should take spelling in connection with the reading lessons. All other pupils may be taken in three groups. Usually this subject receives more time than its value warrants. Unnecessary fear of the written examination is the chief cause of this defect.

GRAMMAR

Formal grammar is not to be taken up before Form IV. Such classes should have at least three fifteen-minute recitations weekly, preceded and followed by study periods of fifteen minutes each. Owing to the same cause as in the case of arithmetic, this subject also has received too great emphasis.

MANNERS AND MORALS

The problem of instructing pupils in manners and morals is dealt with in No. 22 (6) of Part I of the Regulations for Public and Separate Schools.

MANUAL TRAINING, HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE, AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE

At the least, beginners should have simple exercises in picture cutting, free cutting, weaving, sand modelling, etc., as seat work during the day. This should be closely correlated with their other studies. In the other Forms there should be manual training for the boys and household science (sewing chiefly) for the girls, twice a week, from 3.30 to 4.00 p.m. On Friday, this period might be devoted to agriculture. Under the plan recommended by the Department, this period would be largely in the hands of the pupils themselves. In those schools where Progress Clubs have been formed, the President of the club occupies the chair during many of these special sessions. These clubs are doing excellent work wherever they have been formed. Where teachers specially qualified are provided and the time needed for the subjects of Group II will permit, especially in graded schools, one or more of the courses in the commercial subjects, manual training, household science, and agriculture might be taken up in Forms III-V.

TIME-TABLE FOR A RURAL SCHOOL UNDER ONE TEACHER

It is difficult to prepare a time-table for a rural school with one teacher, that would show the exact working out of the foregoing plan, but the following one for such a school with five grades is in practical conformity with the suggestions. The groups are indicated by the figures 1 (b), 1 (a), 2, 3, 4. Group 1 (b) means the beginners, and 1 (a) means the remaining pupils of Form 1. No recitations in spelling, arithmetic, geography, art, etc., are provided for the beginners, since all instruction in these

subjects for the first half-year at school may be made incidental to reading and composition. Where there are Fifth Form Classes in ungraded schools the subjects of Group II will have to be considerably reduced in content, not more than one of the subjects of Group III should be taken, and most of the work must be done by the pupils themselves at their seats with the assistance and guidance of the teacher.

TIME-TABLE FOR A RURAL SCHOOL UNDER ONE TEACHER

NOTES: 1.—The teacher should make himself thoroughly familiar with the provisions of the Regulations which permit of the omission of certain courses and of the topics and sub-topics of others.

2.—Wherever two or more grades are named as reciting together, the teacher should alternate teaching and seat work. For example, when 1 and 2 are taken from 2.10 to 2.20 in spelling, two or three words will be taught to class 1, and while they are writing each of these two or three times, two or three words will be taught to class 2. By following this plan a competent teacher may do very efficient work. The plan, however, presents difficulties to the inexperienced teacher, but these may be gradually overcome as he gains professional skill.

3.—In schools where the provision made below for history is found to be inadequate, a part of the time allotted to arithmetic might be devoted to this subject

Monday, Wednesday, Friday		Tuesday, Thursday	
Recitation	*Seat Work*	*Recitation*	*Seat Work*
9.00- 9.07—	OPENING EXERCISES		
9.07- 9.12—Nature study	1 (b). Word building	4. History	1 b. Word building
9.12- 9.22—4. Spelling	1 (a). Transcription 2. Literature	4. History	1 (a), 2. Transcription 3. History
9.22- 9.32—3. Spelling	1 (b). Word building 1 (a). 2, 4. Spelling	3. History	1 (b). Word building 1 (a), 2. Reading 4. History
9.32- 9.40—1 (b). Reading	1 (a), 2, 3, 4. Spelling	1 (b). Reading	3, 4. History 1 (a), 2. Reading
9.40- 9.50—1 (a). Arithmetic	1 (b). Paper cutting 2. Transcription 3. 4. Literature	1 (a). Arithmetic	1 (b). Picture study 2. Composition 3, 4. History and Geography
9.50-10.05—2. Arithmetic	1 (b). Paper cutting 1 (a), 4. Arithmetic 3. Composition	2. Arithmetic	1 (b). Picture study 1 (a), 4. Arithmetic 3. Composition

10.05-10.10—1, 2, 3, 4. Physical Culture or Vocal Music		1, 2, 3, 4. Physical Culture or Vocal Music	
10.10-10.30—4. Arithmetic	1 (b). Modelling 1 (a). Geography 2. Arithmetic 3. Geography	4. Arithmetic	1 (b). Word study 1 (a). Composition 2. Arithmetic 3. Composition
10.30-10.45—	RECESS		
10.45-11.00—3. Arithmetic	1, 2. Reading 4. Reading	3. Arithmetic	1, 2. Manual Training 4. Composition
11.00-11.15—1 (a and b) Reading	2. Geography 3. Arithmetic 4. Grammar	1 (a and b). Reading	2. Manual Training 3. Arithmetic 4. Composition
11.15-11.30—4. Grammar	1. Play 2. Geography 3. Arithmetic	3, 4. Special*	1. Play 2. Reading
11.30-11.45—1, 2. Geography or Manual Training	3. Reading 4. Grammar	1, 2. History or Art	3, 4. Reading
11.45-11.55—1 (a), 2, 3, 4, Writing	1. (b). Dismissed for noon	1 (a), 2, 3, 4, Writing	1 (b). Dismissed for noon
11.55-12.00—Examination of seat work			
12.00-1.00 —	NOON		
1.00-1.15 —4, Literature	1 (b). ManualTraining 1 (a). Composition 2. Composition 3. History or Geography	4. Reading	1 (b). Manual Training 1 (a), 2. History or Art 3. Reading

	Monday, Wednesday, Friday		Tuesday Thursday	
	Recitation	*Seat Work*	*Recitation*	*Seat Work*
1.15- 1.25	1. Reading and Oral composition	2, 3, 4, Review necessary work	1. Reading and Oral composition	2, 3, 4. Review necessary work
1.25- 1.40	2. Composition	1. Reading 3, 4. Literature	3. Reading	1, 2. Writing 4. Composition
1.40- 1.55	3. Literature	1. Art 2. Composition 4. Geography	1, 2. Hygiene	3, 4. Reading
1.55- 2.10	1, 2, 3, 4. Music and Physical Culture		1, 2, 3, 4. Music and Physical Culture	
2.10- 2.30	1, 2. Spelling	3. Literature, 4. Art	3, 4. Hygiene	1, 2. Nature Study
2.20- 2.30	3, 4. Nature Study	1, 2. Spelling	1, 2. Nature Study	3, 4. Hygiene
2.30- 2.45	RECESS			
2.45- 3.00	3, 4. Composition	1. Dismissed 2. Reading	3, 4. Mental Arithmetic	1. Dismissed 2. Transcription
3.00- 3.15	2. Literature	3, 4. Nature Study and Composition	2. Reading	3, 4. Manual Training
3.15- 3.30	3, 4. Geography	2. Literature	3, 4. Art	2. Memorization
3.30- 3.55	2, 3, 4. Manual Training (M., W.), Sewing for girls (W.) —Special Programme Friday		4. Book-keeping or Art	2. Arithmetic 3. Art
3.55- 4.00	CLOSING EXERCISES			

The period 11.15-11.30 (3, 4, Special) should be devoted to teaching any subject that needs special attention, or to supervision of the seat work of the whole school. It may in some schools be profitably devoted to extending the time allotted to Geography in Forms III and IV.

A MODIFICATION OF THE PRECEDING TIME-TABLE

In schools in which the subjects of Group III are not taken up, certain of the recitation periods may be modified as below, and the seat work altered to suit the new conditions.

9.07-9.12—	Nature Study	Nature Study
9.12-9.22—	4. Spelling (M., W., F.),	4. History (T., Th.)
9.22-9.32—	3. Spelling (M., W., F.),	4. History (T., Th.)
3.15-3.30—	3. Geography (M., W., F.),	3. 4. Art (T., Th.)
3.30-3.45—	4. Geography (M., W., F.),	3. 4. Art (T., Th.)
3.45-3.55—	3. History (M., W. F.),	3. History (T., Th.)
3.55-4.00—	Closing	

The problem, however, of arranging a time-table for an ungraded school has usually fewer practical than theoretical difficulties, for the reason, that in very few schools indeed will there be found all the forms and grades. The enlargement of the time periods rendered possible by the absence of one or more of the grades will make the teacher's task a much easier one than would appear at first sight possible. It is undeniable that in the longer periods of the time-tables hitherto in use, much time was wasted in matters of comparatively little importance, and the teaching in consequence of the periods being longer was less intensive and less direct and purposeful than the shorter periods necessitate. No doubt, some difficulty will be experienced by the older teachers in adjusting themselves to a new set of conditions, but both the experienced and the inexperienced will find themselves stimulated by the constant necessity for alert and vigorous work in the short and rapidly changing periods which this Manual proposes.

It is important to remark in closing this Chapter, that the time-tables proposed, should, in no case, be adopted

out of hand. They are to be taken as merely suggestive. As has been previously remarked, the conditions in the different schools vary so widely and the teachers differ so much in capacity and experience that a time-table which could be carried out quite successfully under one teacher might prove unworkable under another.

CHAPTER XII

RECORDS AND REPORTS

FEW teachers realize the value of records. Not many years ago the oldest school building in a city of Ontario was replaced by a new one. All the general registers for many years had been faithfully kept by the Principal of the old school. These records included not only the names of the pupils of the public school itself, but also the register and standing of all the model classes, from their establishment, in 1877, to 1899. On the death of the Principal in the latter year, a new Principal took charge of the school, who, noticing the piles of old registers, ordered the janitor to throw them into the furnace, and in a moment's time the records of years were irrecoverably lost. As lapse of time only adds to the value of records, which are often sources of educational history, teachers should appreciate them more highly and preserve them more carefully than they do.

REGISTRATION

Registers, especially designed for recording the names, ages, and daily attendance of pupils, are supplied to every teacher by the Department of Education through the public school inspectors. In addition to these daily registers, every school should have a general register. The registration of the names and the recording of the attendance should receive the careful attention of the teacher. In fact, the manner in which the registers are kept is usually a very fair index of the general character of the teacher's work. If they are kept neatly and accur-

ately, and fully entered up to date, it is a sign that the teacher gives attention to details, which is one of the conditions necessary to success. The registers are the teacher's business books, from which inspectors and visitors get their impressions of the manner in which the work of the school is done.

The daily register should be marked in such a way as to show the exact time spent in school by each pupil. Absence in either forenoon or afternoon should be indicated in some definite manner. Many teachers record the attendance by marking the figure 1 opposite the name of the pupil in the proper column. A minus sign preceding the figure may be used to indicate the absence of a pupil in the morning, while a similar mark following the figure will indicate absence in the afternoon. Lates may be registered by using a dot before or after the figure. For example, –1. would mean that the pupil was absent for the forenoon, and late for the afternoon session. Two other common methods of marking the register are, (*a*) to record a mark to indicate the absentees only, which is not a desirable method, (*b*) to record the figure each day that represents the total number of days which the pupil has attended in the month. Teachers should adopt the method that presents the neatest appearance and gives the fullest record of the pupil's attendance. For the first week or two, the record may be kept on sheets of paper, and afterwards transferred to the register.

In attending to the register, the teacher should observe the following points:

1. The names, surnames preceding, should be written in ink in alphabetical order, beginning on the left-hand page. In many schools the record of the attendance of boys and girls is kept separate.

2. The age of the pupil at the beginning of the term or upon his entrance should be recorded.

3. The attendance should be marked daily at a stated time, preferably in the afternoon.

4. The calling of the roll may be dispensed with as soon as the teacher is able to recognize each pupil.

5. Attendance for less than half a day should not be credited to a pupil.

6. If the school is closed for any special reason, the reason for closing should be recorded in the register.

7. At the end of each month the total attendance should be computed, and the average attendance entered after being verified.

The general register supplied by the local board of trustees should be a well-bound and properly-ruled book, large enough to contain the records of the school for a period of at least ten years. This book ought to be preserved just as carefully as the minute book of the school board.

Provision should be made in the general register to include the following:

1. The name of each pupil (surname preceding)
2. The date of admission or re-admission
3. The exact date of birth (day, month, year)
4. The name and address of the parent or guardian
5. The religious belief of the child's parents
6. The name of the last school attended, if any
7. The attendance summaries for each month
8. The date when the pupil left school and the cause of his leaving
9. A list of the names of the teachers, grade of certificates held by each, salary schedule, date of appointment, and experience.

10. Entries concerning historic events in the life of the school

11. General remarks.

In large city schools, the general register should be supplemented by a card register, containing the essential facts about each pupil. These cards should be filed in alphabetical order, so that any pupil's name can be found without delay. The system requires care in filing and in preserving the records. A suitable form of card is shown herewith.

(Face of Card)

Date.....

Name (Surname preceding) .....
Age.....Date of birth.....
Parent.....
Address .....
Religious Denomination .....
Admitted .....To Grade.....
Last School Attended (if any).....
.....

(over)

(Back of Card)

RECORD OF PUPIL

Form I .....
Form II .....
Form III .....
Form IV .....
Form V .....
Remarks .....

(over)

Each school should be supplied with a visitor's book, in which visitors may sign their names. In former years, visitors were asked to make remarks about the work of the school, but this custom has been abandoned. Possibly it arose when the official visitors—judges, members of the legislature, members of municipal councils, and clergymen resident in the municipality, took their work seriously. The school law gives these visitors authority to "visit the school, attend any school exercises, and at the time of any visit to examine the progress of the pupils and the state and management of the school, and to give such advice to the teacher and pupils and any others present as they deem expedient."

RECORDS OF WORK OF THE SCHOOL

The records already considered, although essential, are of no greater importance than the records of the work done in the school day by day. The school is organized for work, and it is reasonable to expect that a record of that work should be kept. Yet it is seldom kept in any form.

Such a record would take the form of a daily log-book of the school. One page should be devoted to the work of the various classes, and would read somewhat as follows:

Opening exercises: Scripture, Psalm 27
Arithmetic, 4th Class: Division of Fractions, Rule
3rd Class: Linear-Measure; Problems
2nd Class: Multiplication, 9 times
1st Class: 6+4=10

The other subjects would be entered in a similar way. Entries should be as brief as possible. As preparation for the next day's work, this part of the record may be prepared very profitably by the teacher at home the night

before. It is on record that one teacher had his work so thoroughly organized, and, shall we say, mechanized, that one year's preparation sufficed for all time. According to his students' reports, which, we hope, were not strictly accurate, he reached exactly the same topic on the corresponding date each year. With a view to economy of time and energy, the same outline might be used from year to year, if modified and improved; but there is grave danger of "arrested development" in the teacher who can keep the same matter and present it in the same way year after year.

This record should also contain an account of interesting incidents, notes on children's ways, similar to those recorded in Sully's classic work, and accounts of successful management of difficult cases of discipline. Most of these matters pass entirely out of mind, hence the necessity for a record of them. The real value of such records of a teacher's experience is in their definite contribution to education. From the experiences of many teachers, convincing and reliable principles can be formulated. While many teachers have the right principles in mind, they cannot convince others of their reliability, because the individual experiences on which these principles are founded have vanished from memory and, therefore, cannot be produced as evidence to show by what steps, or from what data, the principles were evolved.

With proper records, the long-standing dispute as to the relative ability of the children of to-day and those of a generation ago, in spelling, writing, and arithmetic, could be settled without a chance of disagreement. If exercises in spelling, writing, and arithmetic had been given to a Form IV class thirty years ago, and the answers of the pupils had been preserved, it would be an easy

matter to give the same or similar exercises to children of the same grade to-day, and to compare the results. But the records of exercises given in these subjects thirty years ago can rarely be obtained. Records of an examination held in Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1865, were accidentally discovered a few years ago. The examination papers and the answers were found intact. The questions have been given to classes of the same grade and even to those of lower grades in many places. In every case, the children of to-day have proved themselves to be much superior to those of the same grade in Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1865. Even this result will hardly convince the man who believes that he and his class-mates of forty years ago were superior in attainments to the children of to-day; and there are no records obtainable to disprove his statements.

For convenience in keeping a record both of the work done and of the interesting daily incidents, a form is herewith shown, which teachers, in both urban and rural schools, have found useful. A separate form is needed for each class, and the information contained therein would save inspectors much valuable time when inspecting schools. In order to get a year's work on such a form abbreviations will have to be used. A folder identical in size with the daily register page would be convenient, and should be fastened in the register for safe keeping.

CLASS RECORD

School .....

Class .....No. Enrolled .....

Boys .....Girls .....

Number at each age .....

Average age, Boys.....; Girls.....; All .....

Attendance .....; Aggregate .....; Average .....

(*For Graded Schools only*)

September

October

November

December

January

February

March

April

May

June

Total .....

FALL TERM

Subject	Work done. (Number each Topic or Lesson for future reference.)
Reading	
Spelling	
Arithmetic	
Literature	
Composition	
Geography	
History	
Writing	
Hygiene	
Art	
Nature Study	
Manual Training	
Household Science	
Grammar	
Music	
Calisthenics	

NOTE.—A form similar to this will be used for the winter and spring terms.

When a pupil is transferred to another school, the teacher should make a copy of the topics treated in each subject, and give it to the pupil, along with a transfer card, showing his grade and attendance. Another report should state the standing obtained in examinations. The teacher receiving this information would be able to form a fairly accurate judgment of the new pupil's ability to do the work of the class to which he has been transferred. The value of such a record would be inestimable when a teacher had to take charge of a class at the New Year, at Easter, or at any other date after the work of the school year had commenced. There are many changes of teachers at the New Year; and teachers who take charge of schools at this time are obliged to waste the greater part of the first month in the effort to discover what has been done in each subject in each class. At least half of this time would be saved if the previous teacher had left a complete record of his work. Such a record would also be of great value to a substitute teacher who might have to take charge of a class, often without any time for preparation—a difficult undertaking under the most favourable circumstances. Great economy of time could be effected by using these records. Without them, not only time but also some of the results of the former teacher's instruction will be lost. If changes of teachers must be made, the resultant loss can be minimized by keeping good records of the work done in the school from day to day.

REPORTS

Good records form the basis of accurate and valuable reports. Some reports are necessary; others are a matter of choice on the part of the teacher. The Department of Education provides the blank forms for all necessary reports to the Department. These forms are in the daily

register, from which, when they have been properly filled up, they are to be detached and forwarded to the inspector. It is the duty of the secretary of the board to forward these reports to the inspector before a fixed date, but most of the information asked for can be supplied only by the teacher; hence he should see that his part of the work is done before he leaves the section, either for his holidays, or to teach in another school. School grants cannot be apportioned till all these reports are sent to the Department, and the inspector has the power to withhold his order for the payment of the grants, if the law regarding reports is violated.

Teachers of schools that have school gardens are required to make a special form of report in order to secure the grant given for this purpose. This report requires exact statements of fact, which can be obtained only from records. When a teacher starts the garden in spring and leaves at the end of June to take another school, there is need of careful records in order that the teacher who takes charge in the fall can make out an honest report. A record of a school garden is necessary for nature study purposes, even if no report were required by the Department of Education.

The school law requires that the teacher who suspends a pupil shall report to the trustees and to the parents the cause of such suspension. The trustees may confirm or annul the suspension. The law also requires that the teacher shall report any necessary absence from the school to the trustees and to the inspector. The presence of infectious or contagious diseases among children attending the school should be reported to the medical officer of health and to the school board.

A teacher is further required to make any special report asked for by the trustees, inspector, or Minister of

Education. Sometimes these reports refer to a particular subject, such as equipment, or to the health and mentality of the pupils.

In many cities the penny bank system is operated in connection with the schools, and the teacher must receive and report upon the deposits. Those who complain of the work imposed by all these demands are usually those who have no system, or a poor system, of keeping records.

In urban centres, teachers are required to report to the board of trustees many facts that are not asked for by rural trustees, nor by the Minister of Education. Many city boards ask for a report on the number of cases of corporal punishment each month; also on the kinds of contagious diseases among the pupils and the number of cases of each. Where libraries are used in the schools, the number of books borrowed by the pupils will also be reported. Reference is made to these reports, in order to impress upon teachers that school work is much more complex now than in former years, and that, therefore, some good system of keeping records must be adopted in order to reduce the time required in preparing reports.

The question of sending monthly or bi-monthly reports of class standing to parents is sometimes settled by the board of trustees, and sometimes by the principal of the school, after consultation with his staff. The object of such reports is to keep parents in touch with the work of the school and to secure their co-operation in urging the child to do better work. They are a positive incentive, and have no injurious features, unless they cause the pupils who have a low standing month after month to become discouraged. The teacher's remarks should help to lessen this danger. These reports are worth the

teacher's trouble, for the advantage of enlisting the parents' interest is sufficient compensation for the work required. It is assumed, of course, that all such reports will give parents an accurate idea of the standing of their children. As stated elsewhere in this Manual, however, the publication of such reports, or any part of them, in local newspapers, is unhesitatingly condemned.

A reproduction of a monthly report card is herewith shown. In some cities a small book is used which is kept by the pupil throughout the year, so that, at the end of each month, the whole report to date may be seen.

MONTHLY REPORT

.....W.....School,
(name of pupil)

for the month of..... 192 .....

Subjects	Per cent.		Subjects	Per cent.	
	I	II		I	II
Reading			Literature		
Writing			Manual Training		
Spelling			Geography		
Art			History		
Hygiene			Grammar		
Nature Study			Composition		
Arithmetic			Household Science		

NOTE.—Under I is given the highest percentage obtained by any pupil in the subject; under II, the percentage obtained by this pupil.

Half Days Absent ..... Times Late .....

Standing in Class ..... Conduct .....

Remarks .....

.....

.....Teacher

I hereby acknowledge the receipt of this report, and

.....

.....

.....

Parent's signature

—Please sign and return this card—

NOTE.—Unsatisfactory results are entered in red ink.

It is necessary that parents should be informed of the absence of their children from school, and that parents should inform the teachers regarding the cause of absence. In cities and towns this information should be obtained from the parents by sending a note to them, if the absence is continued beyond one day. The telephone may also be used for this purpose. The truant officers should be notified if the teacher has any reason to believe that the child is being kept at home without good cause, or that he is being employed contrary to law. It is pitifully true that in many cases parents look upon their children as valuable only when earning a few cents to help support the household. It is equally pitiful that in many cases the labour of children of tender years is necessary for the support of the family. All such cases call for thorough investigation and prompt action.

The frequent change of residence in large cities makes it possible for parents who so desire, to keep their children out of school for months at a time. Even in small cities and towns, all kinds of schemes are resorted to in

order to keep children at home without incurring the penalty of the law. Some parents keep their children at home on the pretext that they are about to move from the district. Week after week the same story is told to both teacher and truant officer. After they have moved they keep them at home for another long period, giving as an excuse that their assistance is needed in getting settled. In order that there may be no chance to evade the law, transfer cards should be made out and sent by mail to the principal of the school in the district into which the family is moving. A copy of a transfer card is shown:

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Date .....

Name .....Age .....

This is to certify that this pupil has been attending.....

..... School, in the.....Grade.

His attendance has been as follows:

September	days	February	days
October	"	March	"
November	"	April	"
December	"	May	"
January	"	June	"

He (She) is transferred to ..... School

His (Her) address will be .....

Remarks .....

.....

.....

.....

Principal

CHAPTER XIII

SCHOOL INCENTIVES

An incentive is any influence, immediate or remote, leading to, or tending to lead to, action. In order to classify incentives, it is necessary to determine, first, the basis upon which to proceed. In relation to school work, there are at least three important bases of classification. Incentives should be considered in relation to their effect upon character: from this point of view, they are either beneficial or injurious. They should also be considered in relation to the individual himself: from this second point of view, incentives are either centred in the individual, or in things external to himself, or in purely abstract conceptions known as ideals. Again, they should be considered in relation to the reaction of the individual to the inciting stimuli: from this point of view, incentives either attract or repel the child; that is, they are either positive or negative.

BENEFICIAL OR INJURIOUS INCENTIVES

In order to decide whether incentives are beneficial or injurious, their ultimate effect upon the accomplishment of, or progress towards, the end of education, must be considered. The question is, therefore, will the incentive promote efficient social service? For example, will the incentive secured by publishing the names of the five or six best pupils in the local newspapers each month make these pupils more social-minded, both during and after school life? Many illustrations of the injurious effect of

this incentive could be given; one will suffice. A little girl of eight had been able to get her name in the paper one month but failed the next, her place being taken by a playmate who had formerly failed to secure such standing. Soon after this she announced to her mother that she was not playing with C—any more, "because she was so 'ceited over her name being in the paper." This, of course, furnished much amusement to the parents concerned. Was it comedy or tragedy?

INCENTIVES SATISFYING PHYSICAL OR MENTAL DESIRES

The second point of view furnishes three classes of incentives. The first are those centred in the individual himself. These include incentives to satisfy physical needs, such as hunger, thirst, protection against climatic changes, the desire for muscular activity and bodily comfort. It is now generally recognized by teachers and school officials that it is their duty to provide for all the child's normal physical needs in the school and on the playground, even to nourishing food, if necessary. Today no thoughtful teacher deprives a child of opportunities to satisfy his physical needs. Much progress in this respect has been made since the time of Dickens, who held up to public scorn such atrocities as those depicted in Nicholas Nickleby.

On a higher plane than the satisfaction of physical needs stands the satisfaction of mental needs. Mental activity must find a means of expression just as complete and satisfying as the expression of physical activity. The mind of a healthy child is just as restless as the body, and shows by its inquisitiveness an intense desire for adjustment to new conditions and new experiences. The normal child takes special delight in having these desires

satisfied. The problem of the school is to develop and strengthen active attention in the child, until he gets as great pleasure from mental activity in the school-room as from physical activity on the playground.

Pride in self is the third incentive to action that the teacher should consider. Notwithstanding the fact that the ultimate aim of education is to produce the unselfish citizen, unselfishness grows out of selfishness. It is wise to allow the child to play by himself until the instinct for companionship develops, when playfellows should be provided. Nothing is gained by forcing the child to act before the tendency has appeared. During this period the child will show a strong, in fact, a selfish, sense of ownership and, from this claim to his own property, he should be brought to realize the rights of others to their property. Then, for the child who owns and values property, to share it with another will be a really unselfish act.

POSITIVE INCENTIVES

Positive incentives, centred outside the individual, may be subdivided into four classes: property, position, power, and pride. In addition to the making of articles in manual training, and the growing of flowers and vegetables in the home and school garden for the sake of the product, property incentives include prizes and rewards. Under the head of position are place in class, standing in monthly reports, exhibition of work, and promotion. Power incentives include monitorship, leadership of lines, office in school organizations, and those considerations known as privileges and immunities. Making and growing things should be included in this class also. Power incentives are closely allied to incentives of position.

Finally, pride in the family, in the good name of the school, in the standing of the community, or in nationality, constitutes an incentive of a very high order that should not be neglected.

PROPERTY INCENTIVES: PRIZES, REWARDS

With the exception of prizes and some rewards, all the property incentives have a legitimate use. The offering of prizes, such as medals, books, or money, is fraught with so much danger that the possible advantages are overshadowed by the evil effects. The first objection to prizes is that unfairness is almost sure to be charged, and in all probability will be justified, not because of the intention of the judges, but because of the unfairness of any test of mental ability. Even if a fair test were possible and the judges were so competent as to make no mistake, one or more of the candidates who failed, their parents, and many of their friends, would voice their complaints. Usually these are based upon the charge of unfairness. The existence of such a spirit, even in a few members of the school and community, interferes with the development of social-mindedness, towards which all our educational efforts should be directed.

But there are other objections. Prizes are always awarded for the highest standing. This is indicated by the highest marks which are given for a definite course of study. Both the teacher and the contestants for the prize are handicapped by the necessary adherence to the prescribed course. Some may contend that herein lies the value of the prize; it keeps teacher and pupil to the course of study, but only a poor teacher could profit by such restriction. The better solution of the difficulty in such a case is to dispense with the poor teacher. Good

teachers do not need to stimulate their pupils with prizes.

Again, the offer of a prize is really an injustice to the majority of the class. Relatively few members of the class ever expect to win the prize. In a class of forty, the few who have any chance to win will soon be known both to the teacher and to the class as a whole. Yet, the fact that the prize is to be awarded on the marks obtained at a final examination, set by strangers, cannot fail to influence the teaching injuriously. The mind of the teacher should be free from any aim which does not take into account the welfare of the whole class. The influence of a prize works injustice to a large percentage of the class who should be, but are not, getting the undivided attention of the teacher.

Finally, it may well be urged that even those few who work for the prize to the end do not receive benefits commensurate with the effort put forth. Not only do they limit their attention to a narrower course, but they form a habit of depending upon an external, artificial object for the stimulus that should be provided by something that is more permanent and more likely to act as a stimulus in later life. Such a stimulus can be found only in the natural results of effort to supply real needs, not in artificial desires.

There are, however, legitimate rewards which are attainable by all the members of a class. Promotion may be looked upon as a natural reward of effort. Certificates of progress may be given, and are usually coveted and highly valued. The commendation of parents and teacher is often quite sufficient to keep the whole school faithfully at work. The self-satisfaction which results from good work is perhaps the most stimulating legitimate reward.

If prizes and artificial rewards are to be banished, what will take their place? Undoubtedly, the stimulus to effort that is produced by the making of articles in manual training and by the growing of vegetables and flowers, is more lasting and effective than that of any ordinary prize or reward. There may be a greater sense of power developed in making even so simple a thing as a box than in winning the most costly prize.

> Dr. G. Stanley Hall says: The superficial motivation of fear, prizes, examinations, artificial and immediate rewards and penalties, can only tattoo the mind and body with conventional patterns pricked in, and lead an unreal life in the soul because they have no depth of soil in nature or heredity. However precious and coherent in itself, all subject-matters thus organized are mere lugs, crimps, and frills. All such culture is spurious, unreal, and parasitic. It may make a scholastic or sophistic mind, but a worm is at the root, and, with a dim sense of the vanity of all knowledge that does not become a rule of life, some form of pessimism is sure to intervene in every serious soul.

The teachers are advised, therefore, to depend more upon the power incentives than upon the property incentives.

POSITION INCENTIVES: STANDING, EXHIBITION, PROMOTION

Incentives of position appeal to a reasonable rivalry on the part of the pupils. "Going up head" used to introduce variety into the monotonous routine of school life. The mere change of position in the class was an unimportant matter. The one who answered correctly was known, and the change of place in class could scarcely injure either winner or loser. The question to decide is how much publicity shall be given to the standing in

class? Monthly reports should be made to parents, and if made, the whole class will know the standing of each member of the class. When this is known, additional publicity in the school is permissible; but publicity in newspapers is objectionable. It would seem, however, that the obtaining of a few extra marks is scarcely sufficient reason for selecting a group of pupils for places on an honour roll. Honesty, courage, faithfulness, kindness, and many other traits of character, qualify better for a place of honour.

Exhibition of school work, which is sure to interest the parents in the school, is also a legitimate way of stimulating pupils. If the exhibition is properly managed, there will be only friendly rivalry and genuine inspiration from the examination of their best work. The placing of good work on exhibition is a just recognition of the best, which ought to spur others on to emulate it. There is no need of offering prizes for such work, although certificates may be given.

Position in the school as a whole, that is, grading and promotion, are discussed in another relation. In the present connection, it is sufficient to say that grading and promotion should be based mainly upon mental attainments without regard to conduct. If promotion is refused on the ground of bad conduct, the probable result will be worse conduct, not better. The resourceful teacher should be able to get good conduct through the wise use of other incentives. Although demotion is useless as a disciplinary measure, yet it is in the interests of the pupil who cannot keep up with his class to place him where he can receive the best training. But demotion should be regarded only as a last resort, after other means have failed.

POWER INCENTIVES: MONITORS, PRIVILEGES, IMMUNITIES

Power incentives should be used to distribute the responsibility for successful work in the school. The organization should always provide for the sharing of the responsibility. The leader of the lines should be chosen because of his superior ability in marching. Sometimes, however, even those who are inferior in marching may be spurred to superior work by having responsibility placed upon them; consequently, the leader may be chosen at times on some other basis than that of marching ability. It is desirable that every school and, possibly, every class room, should have a good-sized flag to carry at the head of the march; and the practice of marching behind the flag may be utilized to instil into the pupils' minds a feeling of loyalty to Canada and the Empire.

The power incentive depends for its force upon the natural desire of the individual to excel. Ambition and rivalry are terms which are commonly used in referring to its influence. Without these there would be little progress in the world, and, from the educator's standpoint, it is all-important to direct these tendencies so that the whole community will profit by their influence. It is quite possible to cultivate ambition for public advancement as well as for personal advancement. Rivalry in good works is just as keen as rivalry in evil. Ultimately, an individual should be ambitious to excel his own record, which is sometimes expressed as the desire "to do better than your best." But the value of excelling one's self or one's neighbour lies entirely in what use one expects to make of the power thus attained; if it is to be used for the public weal, it will be profitable. The desire to excel one's neighbour implies a selfish motive, whereas no

incentive can be more worthy than the desire to excel one's own past efforts. The teacher who is imbued with the idea of social efficiency for his pupils will, therefore, endeavour to make them desirous of emulating the good example of others and of surpassing their own previous efforts.

Monitorship has great possibilities in maintaining order in the school-room. The monitors may be called by various names, but the principle of definite responsibility underlies the system. One or more pupils may have the care of the black-board and brushes, another of the map, and another of the floor. If plants are grown, or if there is an aquarium, there should be monitors to care for them. The introduction of manual training and art has made more monitors necessary to look after scissors, cardboard, water, and brushes. Monitorial duties have an attraction for children; so that the teacher may have less difficulty in finding monitors than in finding duties which require them.

Officers in school organizations should be carefully chosen with regard to special fitness for the office. The teacher is the best judge of this fitness. He should, therefore, keep the control of all offices in his own hands. Often the teacher's suggestion is all that is necessary to secure the election of the most desirable pupil. A plan that has been successfully tried is to have the pupils choose by ballot three, or more, of their fellow-pupils, and have the teacher select the individual from among the group. The reverse plan of having the teacher choose the group while the pupils elect the individual has also proved successful.

Privileges and immunities may be granted to pupils on certain conditions. It is possible to grant these in such a way that the pupils who receive them will be

spurred to still greater effort, and those who do not receive them will be benefited by striving to emulate their more fortunate companions. For example, children who have completed the day's work satisfactorily may be allowed to go at an earlier hour. The question of immunity from examinations is discussed in another Chapter.

Every one knows the importance of inducing a pupil to "take pride" in his work. It is natural for a child to seek for the approbation of his elders, and in this love of adult approbation the teacher may find a valuable disciplinary force. He should be careful, however, to commend honest effort more than actual achievement, hard work more than native ability, earnest striving more than mere quantitative results.

There is another side to this feeling of pride in another's opinion, and that is shown in the desire to please some one whom we admire and respect very much. A class of normal students, being asked what punishment had proved most effective in their own cases, almost invariably replied that it was the disapproval of a teacher whom they loved and respected. It is important, first, to establish the right relationship, and then a word of quiet disapproval will accomplish more than the most severe punishment.

Pride in family is something which the teacher may appeal to but can scarcely develop. He must, however, refrain from casting reproach on any family, even if such reproach seems to be justified. Even the street Arab will fight the boy who presumes to make uncomplimentary remarks about his parents, brothers, or sisters.

Pride in the school ought to be developed. By judicious effort the teacher can secure the interest of the whole community. If trustees and parents take pride in the school, the children will soon feel a similar pride;

hence, the teacher should work through the parents. If the school is the real community centre, pride in school will develop into pride in the community. Upon such pride patriotism builds, because one's country after all is one's community greatly enlarged. Hence, national pride is not so difficult to develop as might at first appear, and the school occupies no small place in fostering true patriotism.

IDEALS AS INCENTIVES: RIGHT, DUTY

All incentives thus far considered must prepare the way for the age when a sense of right and of duty will be the inciting causes to action. Good habits must be formed; the incentives named may be used, but, in the progress towards a higher civilization, the foundation must be upon the universal principles of truth, duty, and justice. Not that the lower incentives must be overlooked, but that, while desire for position, property, pride, and power remain, they too must become subject to the higher principle of doing right because it is right. We may not expect children of school age to act on this principle alone; possibly few adults do, but it is the end towards which we must strive. Failure to attain the end cannot be laid at the teacher's door, if he keeps the principle constantly before his class. The best way of doing this is by means of literature and history, in which excellent examples of unselfish devotion to duty may be found.

PLAY AS AN INCENTIVE

Whatever gives children an interest in school work or sends them to their work with greater zest, may be regarded as an incentive. The desire for play is an instinct of childhood. Nothing will stimulate the child more to give attention to the work in hand than the prospect of a play period when the work is completed; and after play

the children will return with delight to work that had previously been irksome.

At present the average teacher too frequently neglects the play of the children. Especially is this true in urban schools, where the grounds are small and the teacher's responsibilities divided. Some teachers neglect their pupils during recesses. By this neglect they lose their greatest opportunity of learning to know their pupils, and the latter receive a much less complete education than they otherwise would.

Play is a preparation for work; if properly directed, the transition from play to work may be accomplished imperceptibly. For example, the child plays in the sand with a small shovel and a hoe. With the same tools he may cultivate a specified area in the garden. The onlooker calls the one play, the other work. To the child, however, both are play, because his whole attention is on the activity itself and not upon the product of it.

Some people are not satisfied with the degree of interest that children show in their play, and offer prizes to encourage them. The first effect of this plan is to turn the attention from the activity to something external to it. This appears of little importance, but it has a transforming effect, as it converts play into work. In the second place, prizes incite children to excessive, and hence injurious, efforts. In the third place, they prevent freedom in play, which is so necessary in order to counteract the specialized effort expended upon the formal work in the school-room. To be valuable, play must be of the kind naturally desired by the child, not the kind determined upon by outsiders, who, however, may suggest suitable plays and see that conditions favour their practice. If the play instinct has not been suppressed, and if favourable conditions have been supplied for play,

then the child may generally be left to himself to play as he wishes.

The artificial conditions of the time demand more attention to play as a corrective of the results of the present comparatively inactive life of children, especially in urban centres, who have to sit in school for five hours a day. Such children need special outdoor activity to counteract the evil effects of sitting so long. Although instinct incites to play, it does not suggest the kind of activity that is necessary to counteract the effects of modern modes of living. It is necessary, therefore, to devise special forms of play and of physical exercises, which must be under the direction of the trained teacher. Provision should be made in the school for both free and organized play in playgrounds fully equipped for the purpose. The course of study in physical training in the normal schools is designed to give teachers the knowledge that is required for the development and supervision of play.

Organized play bears the same relation to free play that teaching bears to study periods. During a lesson period the teacher gives instruction which enables the pupils to do independent study later. Similarly, organized play periods are needed to furnish a foundation for independent play activities afterwards. The time spent in organized play should not be more than one half of the time spent in free play.

Supervision of free play is necessary wherever there are crowded conditions in play areas. The teacher should always keep an eye on the playground, even in the smallest schools. Very serious accidents may happen, and small children may be abused, unless the teacher is known to be on the alert to exercise control, when necessary. Some of the regular teachers should be engaged to

supervise play after school hours, on Saturdays, and during vacations. Intercourse with the pupils and interest in their games are extremely valuable to the teacher in the development of right relationship with the pupils.

In order that the regular play periods should not be interfered with by rainy weather, covered areas, where quiet games may be carried on, should be supplied on every playground. Such play sheds would be especially valuable in connection with rural schools, as the pupils of these schools find it particularly irksome to be deprived of play on rainy days.

ORGANIZED PLAYGROUNDS

The present pronounced movement to provide supervised playgrounds during the summer vacation is evidence of an awakened sense of the value of play. The long summer vacation could be made very valuable educationally by keeping the children engaged in play and in the study of manual training, domestic science, and art, which train muscular control.

During the past few years remarkable progress has been made in providing suitable playgrounds for children. On these grounds supervisors are provided, as it has been found that a play area is not largely patronized unless there is some one in charge to ensure fair play to every one. In Ontario, most of the playgrounds are in connection with the schools, and are under the control, in whole or in part, of the Board of Education. Only when the school ground is too small, or when it serves too large an area, need additional grounds be secured. During the vacation, the parks should be utilized for children in poor health.

There are many advantages in using the school grounds. First, they are likely to require enlargement,

which is a very desirable improvement, as each pupil on a playground requires at least fifty square feet of space. Secondly, play will be directly associated with education, to the benefit of both. Thirdly, the school plant, which costs a great deal of money, will be used more extensively. Sewing, manual training, gardening, and indoor games should all receive attention. Some of the rooms of the school building should be available for these purposes, thereby saving expense.

The value of organized playgrounds, in rural districts especially, is admirably set forth by Myron T. Scudder, and as much, if not all, of what he says has an important bearing upon conditions in Ontario, it is worthy of being quoted:

> Nothing is of greater importance to a nation than a contented rural population. A nation develops power in proportion as its people remain in large numbers on its farms and dwell there in comfortable prosperity. From these farming sections have come most of the best men and women of the nation, and it has come to be a truism to say that the country boy is a nation's most valuable asset. Undermine the welfare of the country districts; allow conditions of rural life to be such as to breed discontent and drive people away; destroy or even seriously injure this great reservoir of manhood, character, and patriotism; and you have a social condition which not only threatens the life of a nation, but, if not remedied, is actually the beginning of the end of that nation's career.
>
> Yet who does not know that we are menaced by this very thing that we dread? Far and wide the rural districts have been depleted of their population. The situation long ago became serious. In some sections there are not enough men to exploit the natural resources of the land. Church and schools become less well attended, grow weak, and close. Things combine to work in a vicious circle; isolations and hardships drive many away, and these isolations and hardships become intensified for those who remain.

Under these conditions, child life in the country frequently becomes peculiarly dull and unattractive; especially to adolescents. Nearly everything conspires to drive them cityward. It is well to have a large number of them go to the city, a very large number, but when practically all want to go, and so many go that the movement swells to an exodus, it is time to seek for remedial measures. House, church, school, and local governing bodies should unite intelligently to produce conditions which will make for contentment.

Fortunately, examples of notable efforts are not wanting. Life in many rural neighbourhoods is being made far more rich and attractive than formerly. It would be interesting to consider the several elements which enter into the problem of securing a wider and better rural life, but attention can be directed here to only one, namely, the cultivation of the athletic and play life of country children which is making such rapid progress.

Country children need play just as much as do city children. They need it for its mental, moral, physical, and social value. They need it because it makes for happiness, contentment, and community spirit. They need it because they do not co-operate well, because they are too strongly individualistic, because they yearn for the companionship which conditions in only too many cases prevent them from enjoying, because they are not, as a rule, well developed physically, not being able to meet, even as successfully as do city children, the average athletic standard tests. In all these respects, play supplies the very training, discipline, and inspiration which these children most need; so its great importance to them can scarcely be overstated.

Yet, in the face of this great need of theirs, we all know they do not play enough, while some have almost no play life at all. Except in places where special effort has been made to teach them, they know surprisingly few games. Moreover, their few games are strongly individualistic, training them for isolated effort, rather than for co-operation.

The country child would undoubtedly play more if conditions were more favourable. But they are not favourable to play. He does not know how to play or what to play; his parents are usually out of sympathy with play; and fre-

quently his teachers are as ignorant as himself in regard to these matters. Even if the child and his teacher did know, the trustees in many cases would interpose objections, and forbid any effort being made in the direction of organized play or athletics. Here, then, is where an earnest, systematic propaganda is necessary. It would be well if country and village school teachers could receive instruction in the art of play, and ministers and other adults be enlisted in the cause of the rural playgrounds.

Properly organized playgrounds and adequate opportunities for enjoying them will help check the exodus from the farms. Where these have been provided, boys have definitely decided to stay at home and farm, instead of leaving for the city. This is not a vision; there are actual instances to support the claim. And the equipment need not be elaborate, nor the opportunities abundant. No boy wants to play all the time; give him an occasional chance and he is happy. Let him have his play hours to look forward to, and a great play festival once a year which will brighten life for weeks and even months, first by eager anticipation, and then by the happy retrospect. Those who have had experience with play festivals in the country know what a tremendous power they become in the life of country people, young and old, how they check restlessness and quiet discontent by supplying the variety, the companionship, the mental and physical activity which are so ardently craved. Perhaps the chief benefit of play in the country will be found in its socializing influences, and in this respect alone it not only means greater efficiency of the individual, but a more wholesome community life, and eventually a stronger nation.

INCENTIVES TO WORK

Under perfectly natural conditions, play activities pass over into work activities. But school room conditions are painfully artificial, especially for children under nine or ten years of age. It is not natural to have the seats for pupils of different sizes, varying in number from time to time. It is not natural that they should sit in these seats even half an hour at a time; nor is it natural that they should refrain for a longer time from talking,

laughing, or running. It is highly artificial to force the attention of these children upon the abstract work at present demanded of them. Oral expression, drawing pictures, making things, and playing, are natural activities, while spelling, number work, and writing are artificial activities.

The child is not yet sufficiently understood to make it possible always to appeal successfully to his natural desires and, through resulting activities, to secure the development which is necessary for life. Consequently, in order to secure effective application to work, special incentives are necessary. But though this is the case, it still remains true that appeal must be made whenever possible to the natural tendencies of the child. We should permit the child to find satisfaction in the natural outcome of his work, rather than in some artificial substitute. Such satisfaction will be experienced if the activity and its result meet a felt need, immediate or remote. One danger of the artificial incentive is that the real need of the child will be overlooked by the teacher, and a further danger is that the child will regard work and its results as necessarily uninteresting and the artificial prize as the main object to strive for. Such a conclusion will be fatal to activity in subsequent life, where these artificial stimuli are not found. It is true, on the whole, that there is sufficient interest in any essential activity to secure attention without any other incentive. The child should learn in school to find satisfaction in the work itself, as this is the natural incentive in later life. The school should represent real life in miniature.

CHAPTER XIV

ORDER AND ATTENTION

MECHANIZED DAILY ROUTINE

In order to economize the time and energy of both teacher and pupils in maintaining order, and in thus securing favourable conditions for attention to work, the various actions that have to be done every day should become habitual through constant practice. The teacher should put forth extra effort for the first few weeks of the term to have this accomplished. The following actions are among the most important that should be habituated:

Passing from seats to classes
Entering and leaving school
Position while answering questions
Manner of speaking when answering
Passing materials and collecting exercises
Working neatly
Arranging materials in desks
Disposing of waste materials
Keeping desk and surroundings neat
Coming to school clean and tidy
Caring for apparatus in the class room
Studying methodically according to the time-table
Attending punctually and regularly

The method of forming habits has been discussed in Chapter IV, on the Child. It is only necessary, therefore, to consider the kind of action which the teacher should aim to secure.

MOVEMENTS

The pupils of the school should be trained to perform the necessary movements as methodically and as quietly

as possible. The best plan is to have each movement controlled by a number. *One* should always mean to turn; *two*, to stand, *three*, to move forward. Thus, in calling a class to recite, the teacher would say: "Second Class, reading; one, two, three." If it is desired to halt the class, the command, "halt," should be given. Bells are not as satisfactory for signals as the human voice, although a bell may be used whenever the whole school is to be called to order, and one tap should be sufficient for this purpose; if, for any reason, it is not, the voice or some other means should be used. Jangling the bell for the purpose of attracting attention is likely to increase disorder.

The school should always be dismissed in orderly fashion, unless the number of pupils in attendance is so small that movement in lines is unnecessary. The signals used in calling classes should be used; that is, "Recess; one, two, three." In the halls, the lines should pass in and out in the same order as in fire drill. Keeping step is facilitated by the use of a piano. The same order should be observed in entering the school. The handling of wraps has been considered in Chapter X.

POSITION

As already stated in Chapter III, pupils should stand while answering questions, and in such a position as to show confidence in their ability to answer. The manner in which the teacher speaks—whether clear and decisive, or in a mumbling tone—will influence the pupils' manner of speaking; a teacher who speaks indistinctly cannot reasonably expect that pupils' answers should be spoken so as to be heard in all parts of the room.

PASSING MATERIALS

To save time and prevent confusion, the teacher should make use of monitors to pass materials, such as paper, pencils, and books. The simplest way of managing this is to have the pupils in the front seat of each row distribute the materials to the pupils of that row. Materials and exercises should be collected in the reverse order, by the pupils in the back seat of each row.

NEATNESS AND CLEANLINESS

Teachers should insist not only that pupils should do their work neatly, but that they should also keep their books and other school supplies neatly arranged in their desks, so that whatever is required may be found promptly. Much confusion and waste of time will result if this is not done. The pupils should not be allowed to fill their desks with waste paper, apple cores, and other useless articles. In all schools receptacles should be provided in which the pupils should be trained to deposit all rubbish. On special occasions these receptacles may be passed around by a monitor and all rubbish collected in them.

Each pupil should be responsible for the cleanliness of the floor in the neighbourhood of his own seat. A definite place should be assigned for sharpening pencils, so that the chips will not litter the floors. All pencils should be sharpened at a definite time, either by the individual pupils or by monitors. Then, if a few sharpened pencils are held in reserve by the teacher in case of accident to the pencil points when being used, no time will be lost in this very necessary work.

Spilling of ink is apt to cause much untidiness in the school rooms. Some pupils take a mischievous delight in filling the ink-wells with paper or chalk. Any one

found doing this should be made to clean the ink-well at recess or after four o'clock. Even with careful management some ink will be spilled on the desk, when the pen is withdrawn from the well. Again, some pupils have a habit of shaking the surplus ink from the pen to the floor, in order to avoid blotting their paper. A good supply of blotting paper should be kept in the desk, and the pupils should be taught to use it whenever ink falls upon the desk, and to shake their pens, if necessary, above the blotting paper. If the pen is drawn from the ink-well across its edge, the surplus ink will be removed and blotting will be avoided. All ink stains should be washed from the desks and floors weekly.

Chalk dust is the bane of the school-room. The teacher should learn how to clean a black-board with the ordinary "dustless" eraser without scattering dust through the room. A single firm downward stroke, ending at the chalk trough with a firm tap of the eraser against the board, will minimize the chalk dust nuisance and clean the board fairly well, especially if a good brand of "dustless" chalk is used. Monitors should clean the brushes out-of-doors at recesses, and the caretaker should wipe the boards off with a damp cloth and thoroughly clean out the chalk troughs every night. All small pieces of chalk should be destroyed, so that the pupils cannot secure them and be tempted to deface the walls and fences.

A still more fruitful source of dust is the mud carried in by the children on their shoes. Some school yards are frequently in a disgraceful condition, and children are proverbially careless about getting into muddy places and, indeed, often prefer to do so. Of course, the first step should be to get a clean yard. Then pupils should be lined up outside and their boots inspected,

before being admitted to the class rooms. Wire mats and stiff brushes should be provided for cleaning shoes, and pupils should be taught to use them. The logical consequence of neglecting to keep one's shoes passably clean is to require the delinquent to clean the floor of all mud carried in. The pupils should also be trained to keep themselves clean and tidy. The best means of accomplishing this is outlined in Chapter XV, under the heading of offences against one's self.

DEFINITE WORK

Good physical habits should be valued more particularly as a means of leading to good mental and moral habits. A good habit of study is more desirable than any of the habits already discussed. As soon as the pupils come to their seats, they should have definite work to do and should be trained to set about it without delay. Naturally, some pupils will finish their work sooner than others, and the teacher should provide additional work for these. Usually this can be done by granting special privileges in using the library or in pursuing some special study, such as art, of which a student may be particularly fond. The pupils should be trained to use the time-table for their guidance, so that even in the absence of the teacher the work of the school could proceed satisfactorily.

ATTENDANCE

Punctual and regular attendance is more than a physical habit; it is in reality a moral habit. The pupils must not only be led to see the necessity of punctuality and regularity, for their own sakes; but they must also recognize such attendance to be a duty which they owe to the school as a society of which they are members.

The teacher should make the lessons for the first ten or fifteen minutes especially interesting, and should maintain a pleasant emotional tone throughout the school. These are important factors in securing punctual and regular attendance. The greeting of the children in the morning should be cheerful, and at four o'clock a quiet "Good afternoon, boys and girls; I want to see every one here on time to-morrow," will help to secure punctuality and to maintain the spirit of cheerfulness with which the day should begin and end. A smile and a nod do not cost much, but they may bring gladness to many a child and make its troubles easier to bear. If possible, settle all matters of discipline before four o'clock, and send the children home with the feeling that to-morrow begins a new and happy day.

CAUSES OF DISORDER AND INATTENTION

The development of the child from a selfish to a social individual cannot be accomplished without order and attention. Although these are not ends in themselves, they are results of good management and, in their turn, help to accomplish the end of education in much the same way that any other factor in the school does. It is not possible, however, to prevent all disorder and inattention. It is necessary, therefore, to consider the causes of disorder. These may often be found in the physical environment—temperature, ventilation, lighting, seating, and the general condition of the school room.

Too high or too low a temperature will cause restlessness and inattention. As already stated, the temperature should range from 64° to 68° F., and the air should be kept humid. Dr. Wood of Columbia University says: "When humidity drops below thirty degrees the

excessive dryness of the air becomes a very unsanitary factor, producing increase of nervous irritability, with restlessness of pupils; also more rapid development of fatigue, with diminished working power of pupils."

Poor ventilation is one of the most frequent causes of disorder and inattention. An atmosphere containing an excessive amount of carbon dioxide, with its corresponding amount of organic impurities, is more conducive to sleep than to attention, and the teacher's attempts to secure effort are more likely to produce irritability and consequent disorder.

Another cause of disorder is poor lighting. The increased eye-strain made necessary by insufficient light decreases the energy available for work. On dull days, even in the best lighted class rooms, the strain on the eyes should be reduced to a minimum by making the demand on the eyes less than on bright days. The print in the books and the writing on the black-board should be large and plain. Shiny black-boards and coated paper should be excluded from every class room.

Uncomfortable seats may make order and attention impossible. Children cannot be expected to have sufficient self-control to overcome the physical discomfort due to improper seats that are not adapted to them.

Conditions in the room may be causes of disorder. A clean, tidy room not only suggests good order, but is an important factor in securing and maintaining it. The teacher's desk should be kept tidy, the floor should be kept free from litter, the pictures should be hung properly, and all books should be kept in repair and neatly arranged. In a word, there should be a place for everything, and everything should be in its place.

The kind of pens, paper, and ink used has a good deal of influence on the general order of the school.

Scratchy pens that constantly prick the paper and splatter ink over it, ink that does not flow well, penholders that are too small, and small print in the textbook, are productive of nervous strain that may produce much restlessness. In addition, the teacher needs the best chalk, brushes, and other equipment, in order to economize the energy which is so greatly needed in the important work of teaching.

Again, the cause of inattention and disorder may be found in the bodily condition of the pupils. They may not be properly fed, they may be in ill health, or they may be fatigued. The first condition is not uncommon in large cities, and is much more common in every community than is generally supposed. Wherever it exists, steps should be taken at once to remedy it. Ill health accounts for much disorder and inattention that the average teacher is almost certain to attribute to something else. An unruly child is often an unhealthy child. Medical supervision would prevent very much disorder and inattention or, at any rate, would reveal their causes, and thus be helpful in suggesting a remedy.

Fatigue is a frequent cause of inattention. Even children who are in good health become fatigued and restless through conditions in the class room, or through prolonged nervous strain. Whenever a teacher observes this, he should change the conditions in the room, or change the work, or both. If some of the windows are thrown open, and the pupils march around the room, singing as they march, they will resume their work with renewed vigour.

At all times singing in the school gives a pleasing variety to the school exercises, affords relaxation from severer studies, and is an aid to discipline. And just here it may be added that every teacher should have

some knowledge of music, and be able, in some degree, to train his pupils to sing. To show what is possible with the most meagre musical qualifications, take the case of a young teacher who in his first year's experience had great difficulty in keeping his pupils interested in their work. It was in one of the old type of rural schools, with one room, badly arranged, badly equipped, and greatly overcrowded. The teacher's musical attainments consisted of a limited knowledge of the musical scale. He procured a book of simple tunes, and proceeded to teach his pupils to sing. He would dictate the words of a selection to his pupils and then sing the notes of the tune, to which the pupils fitted the words, as they all sang together. The pupils in this way soon learned a number of selections, and when a spirit of restlessness began to show itself, the school exercises were varied with a song or two, and forthwith "birds of calm sat brooding on the charmed wave." This was the beginning of the practice of singing in that school. After four years, this teacher was followed by one who had neither an ear for music nor the slightest knowledge of it. The singing ceased, the teacher lost control of the school, and when his year of service ended, and ever after, one of the qualifications demanded of the incoming teacher was that he should be able to teach the children to sing.

Another cause of disorder and inattention may be due either to the pupil's immaturity of mind, or to his lack of the necessary experience to enable him to relate the matter which demands his attention to the knowledge he has already acquired. Teachers frequently demand work from children that is beyond their capacity, and, more frequently still, they overestimate the accuracy and completeness of the pupils' grasp of what has been already studied in class. This gives rise to mis-

understanding between teacher and pupil. The teacher becomes impatient with the pupil for being thoughtless and inattentive; and the pupil regards the teacher as unreasonable and cherishes a feeling of hostility which manifests itself in disorderly conduct. The teacher should be on his guard, therefore, lest through hasty judgment he may himself bring about disorder.

A most fruitful cause of disturbances in the school is the existence of bad habits among the pupils. There is, of course, a great difference between children from different homes; but comparatively few of them have acquired habits of cleanliness, quietness, orderliness, and politeness; hence, when the teacher has to face forty or fifty pupils from as many homes, his preconceived notions are apt to receive a shock. If he remembers, however, that he was once like one of these unpromising boys, it may help him all the better to aid his pupils. These bad habits must be suppressed and replaced by good ones. How to do this is discussed in manuals on the Science of Education.

Other common causes of disturbances are work beneath the capacity of the pupils, the existence of artificial conditions in the school, and especially the bungling efforts of a teacher of weak character. The work in school should be adapted to the mental development of the pupils; too easy work is nearly as objectionable as work that is too difficult. As a rule children like to be put on their mettle by doing work that demands effort. Again, some teachers are too conventional in their ideas of discipline, and do not discriminate in their treatment of offences; and the teaching may be so mechanical as to destroy all interest in the work of the school.

Weakness on the part of the teacher is an unfailing cause of disturbance. In relation to order in the school-room there are three representative types of teacher in our schools. The first is found in the one who is master of himself and of the subjects he is required to teach, and who is able so to control conditions in the school as to create an atmosphere of order, even in an unfavourable environment. To such a teacher the question of maintaining order is of no concern. Good order arises out of, and is a natural accompaniment of, his teaching, and any tendency to disorder would be exceptional. The second type is on a much lower plane. He gets along fairly well from day to day, if an atmosphere of order is created for him, or after he has taken time to bring about a semblance of order before beginning a new lesson; but he must be continually subject to the strain of watching lest disorder arise. With him the maintenance of order is something apart from his teaching, and something that demands a much greater expenditure of nervous energy. The teacher of the third type is one who, either through lack of self-control, lack of knowledge, or weakness of judgment, becomes the cause of disorder, even when other conditions are favourable. This class of teacher should not find a place in our schools, yet, unfortunately for the children, too many of them manage to remain for years in the profession, by shifting year after year the scene of their failures.

CHAPTER XV

OFFENCES AND PENALTIES

It is not wise for a teacher to anticipate offences; if he enters a school or class room looking for trouble, he will usually find it. But in a Manual on School Management it cannot be overlooked that offences come, and suggestions must be made as to methods of dealing with them.

CLASSIFICATION OF OFFENCES

Offences may be conveniently classified according to the interests against which the offences are committed. On this basis the classes of offences are:

1. Offences mainly against one's self; for example, lack of cleanliness, improper position while sitting or standing, poor breathing, use of tobacco, and neglect of health. These are called faults. To them may be added such faults as inaccuracy, indifference, neglect of work, and reading trashy books.
2. Offences mainly against the school society:
   (*a*) Against fellow pupils—meddling, tattling, copying, cheating at play, discourtesy, quarrelling.
   (*b*) Against the teacher—noisiness, whispering, and other interruptions in class, impertinence, rebellion.
   (*c*) Against the school—tardiness, irregularity in attendance, truancy.
   (*d*) Against the community—injuring property, trespassing, disturbing the peace.

   These offences are, for the most part, regarded as misdemeanours.

3. Offences mainly against the laws of the land: such as cruelty, assault, swearing, stealing, and other forms of dishonesty. These are called crimes. Some of these are also included in the next class.
4. Offences mainly against standards of right or, as sometimes expressed, against ideals. This class includes the offences enumerated in the Decalogue and, from the standpoint of religion, they are properly spoken of as sins.

It is evident that these classes represent an ascending series increasing in gravity, and that the treatment of them should, in some measure, correspond to the seriousness of the offence. Teachers are too apt to overlook essential differences in offences, and to administer the same punishment for all, varying only in degree. In school, offences which among adults would be classed as crimes may be treated as misdemeanours.

The teacher should not be prejudiced by reports from the preceding teacher, the trustees, or the pupils; yet how frequently the departing teacher and the trustees warn the new teacher against the bad pupils whom he is to teach. If the new teacher cannot prevent this tattling, he should at least pay no attention to it. Common British justice demands that the offender should not be prejudged, and neither by work nor action should the teacher at any time reveal a mind in the least degree suspicious of the good intentions and straightforwardness of his pupils.

PENALTIES

It is a mistake for a teacher to threaten the infliction of penalties for offences that have not been committed; some venturesome pupil will be likely to test the teacher's

threat. The teacher should act as if he expected every pupil to do his part in the work of the school, and to help the others to do their part; and any failure to do right should be dealt with on its merits, unhampered by previous announcements of penalties which, by the time the offence occurs, may be quite inappropriate. He should remember, too, that the main object in inflicting a penalty is to prevent a repetition of the offence.

RECORDS

To avoid the infliction of penalties, a daily record of each pupil's conduct may be kept, with a sort of debit and credit account which would show his or her conduct standing at any given time. Under this system, each pupil is given perfect standing at the beginning of the term. Different offences reduce this credit in proportion to their nature. Continuous good behaviour for a stated period restores a portion of the credit lost. When the credit is entirely lost, it is understood that some penalty must be imposed.

The advantages of such a system are that it disposes immediately of trivial offences that should not be overlooked, and yet not allowed to break the continuity of the work in the class; that it rewards effort to reform; and that, in actual operation, it reduces the number of offences. A disadvantage is that it involves much record keeping, which is objectionable, unless the results are commensurate with the trouble. Many teachers do not need any system of this nature, because offences with them are so few that each may be dealt with as it arises, in which case it is folly to keep records. But in large schools the plan has been found very effective in keeping down the number of offences.

There are, however, some offences that are too

serious to be dismissed with a debit of ten or more marks. Lying, stealing, and swearing must be dealt with as they occur, at whatever cost of time and trouble. In any case the value and danger of various penalties must be considered. In such consideration the effect of the penalty upon the co-operation of the teacher and pupil in accomplishing the aim of the school must be kept in mind. If the penalty promotes progress towards the desired end, it is profitable; if it prepares the way for activity leading towards the end, it is desirable; if it interferes with progress towards the end without the compensation of subsequent more rapid advance, it is unprofitable. In all cases the reformation of the offender and the good of the school should determine the use of penalties.

SCOLDING, RIDICULE, SARCASM

The teacher must be on his guard lest, in dealing with cases that require disciplinary treatment, he does not himself become guilty of offences. A teacher should never scold; neither should he threaten. This does not mean that he should not, in emphatic terms, reprove the pupils for misdemeanours, or that he should not make clear that certain penalties await certain offences. But it does mean that he should not nag pupils, or threaten them with what will happen next time. Further, he should not constantly be demanding attention. The teacher who declares in a loud tone "I must have order," merely causes greater disorder. An occasional suggestion, firmly expressed, that the work be done in a quiet and orderly manner, will succeed where bluster is sure to fail.

Ridicule or sarcasm is a weapon that a teacher must never use to a pupil. This does not mean that effective

use may not be made of good-natured banter, in such a way as to make the pupil ashamed of any "smartness" he may have exhibited, and to turn against him the laugh of his fellows. But biting sarcasm should never be employed by teacher to pupil, or by any superior to one who for the time being is in a subordinate position —by parent to child, or by master to servant.

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

The term discipline, as used in reference to the school, is generally applied to the penalties that are incurred through offences. But it implies more than that; it includes the proper control of children while under instruction, without regard to the way in which that control is maintained. Discipline has also the wider significance of subordinating desire to duty in all the relations of life, whether within or without the precincts of the school.

The main objects of school discipline are to develop the power of self-control in the pupils; to protect the rights of all within the school, so that each one is able to do his most effective work; and to induce pupils to guard the good name of the school society, by exhibiting a proper course of conduct when they are not subject to school control.

There are external aids to discipline, some of which have been already mentioned; but, above all, discipline is a matter of internal management, and must depend chiefly upon the personality of the teacher and his manner of dealing with his pupils. He must be sympathetic, tactful, frank, firm, enthusiastic. The teacher who has, or assumes habitually, a severity of expression, does not invite the hearty co-operation of boys and girls with smiling, happy faces. But he must also

know when to be firm, even to the extent of becoming unpopular for the time. Pupils will forgive, and retain their respect for, a teacher who is severe on occasion, but they will neither forgive nor respect one who is "an easy mark." Pupils who do not object to strictness, or even severity, will resent, and hold in memory, the slightest approach to partiality or unfairness. Further, unless the teacher acts in a frank and open manner towards his pupils, he cannot expect them to act in this way towards him.

The teacher must also avoid peculiarities of dress, voice, or manner, have his own work well prepared, show interest in his pupils' work, and so keep them interested; and he should not court breaches of discipline by making such rules as tempt pupils to break them. He should put pupils on their honour, and always act as if he expected honourable conduct from them. He should not be too exacting, should know when to overlook trivial offences, when to see without observing. He should also be ready at all times to regard favourably any change of attitude on the part of a pupil and not exact the full measure of the penalty.

The teacher should allow as large a measure of self-government among his pupils as their power of self-control and sense of responsibility will permit. Class committees have been proved very useful for this purpose, and of perhaps greater use are the "Progress Clubs" which are being formed in many schools, in rural districts especially.

PROGRESS CLUBS

These Progress Clubs have been the means of stirring up a praiseworthy school spirit which is a great aid to discipline, and of creating a greater interest in the

school throughout the community, resulting especially in drawing attention to the possibilities of making agriculture more attractive to young people. The following extracts from a report of the secretary (a pupil) of one of these Progress Clubs, to the Director of Elementary Agricultural Education for the Province, are worthy of record in this connection:

> Our Club was organized the 6th of January, 1914. The name of our Club is the Roebuck School Progress Club. Our aim is the best possible school for the people and children of this community. Our motto, *plus ultra*, means more beyond, and there is always something to do. . . . At the meeting each Friday, after the agricultural lesson, the President takes the chair, while the teacher takes a seat with the scholars. . . . The school room, library, and school yard committee are put in once a month. We also have monitors for passing around the clothes. Our water-carriers and wood-carriers are put in each week. The girls give hints on household work, and the boys tell about things on the farm.
>
> But I suppose after all, what we have done is of most importance, and perhaps you would like to hear about that. We established a book-shelf on which to keep the agricultural books and bulletins. Some of the pupils bring agricultural papers to read. We have reading on agriculture topics every Tuesday. In the Spring the boys made window boxes and the girls of each class planted nasturtium seeds. The girls near the school took care of them during the holidays. There was a fly and worm-killing contest in the Spring, for which a prize was given. The girls wash the windows and clean the pictures occasionally. . . . We have been writing to girls in Australia and Jamaica, and we thought it would be nice to write to other Progress Clubs in our own country. . . . The class that cleans their finger nails and teeth the most is to receive a special package of seed for the garden. We are making a quilt for the Belgians; it is all pieced and we just have to put it together. . . . We have planned to get curtains for the windows and also a clock to put on the book-shelf. The boys are going to make hanging baskets for the windows. We are looking forward to the school

garden in the Spring. We should like to have any new ideas of what Progress Clubs can do.

The teacher, in sending forward this report, also writes:

I have found the Progress Club one of the greatest helps in the school, and I would not be without it for anything. I never have any trouble now with the children destroying or marking up school property. They are proud of their school and wish to make it as nice as possible. It has been the means of working up a sentiment in favour of school gardening, and through it the people are becoming more interested in the school. . . . This year we did not have a school garden, as I did not think the time was ripe, but I taught agricultural lessons all year, using their home plots as a basis. This year we have applied for a grant, and I trust our garden work may teach us many lessons.

Surely where there is such a school organization, and such a school spirit, the problem of discipline must be greatly simplified, if not completely solved.

PENALTIES FOR OFFENCES

The usual penalties imposed by teachers are—separation from the class, deprivation of privileges, detention after school, tasks or "impositions," marks for bad conduct, corporal punishment, suspension, expulsion.

SEPARATION

Separation from the class may be quite an effective punishment for young children, who have a strong gregarious instinct; but it is a penalty for which conditions may not always make it possible to provide. It is a common practice to send pupils from the class room, stand them in a corner, or bring them to front seats. The last-mentioned penalty may be effective; but the other two are of doubtful utility, as they not infrequently lead to greater disorder. To send a pupil from a room

means his virtual suspension from the class. It is a penalty that may be enforced in a graded school, but, even then, very rarely; it generally indicates weakness in the disciplinary powers of the teacher. A pupil who comes under this penalty should be required to report immediately to the principal of the school, under whose supervision he must remain until right relations are established between the offending pupil and the teacher. Actual separation of a pupil from the class to prevent the recurrence of minor offences may be effected without the other pupils recognizing that the teacher has any disciplinary motive in view. Thus, a boy who is disturbing the class may be sent to the black-board to do some work, or may be asked to perform some necessary service for the school. The change is sufficient to bring about improvement in the general order, and it is probable that the teacher alone knows why the restless pupil was called upon to do the work. To make this discipline effective the pupil should be quietly spoken to afterwards about the offence.

DETENTION

Deprivation of privileges is a most salutary mode of punishment, which may well be put in the class of natural penalties, in cases where it can be carried into effect. In the same class may be included detention after school, provided that it is possible to allow all pupils who have a free record to leave the school half an hour earlier than those whose records are not clear. Pupils should not be "kept in" at recess.

Detention after the legal hour of closing school may raise a question as to the teacher's right to inflict this penalty under the school law. The wisest course is not to adopt this mode of punishment except in cases

where the regulations of the board permit of such a penalty, or where suspension would be the required substitute. Neither pupils nor parents would be likely to object to this punishment, when they are obliged to face the alternative.

IMPOSITIONS

On the other hand, tasks or impositions, which usually take the form of writing a number of lines, are a most illogical and ineffective penalty. It is true that a judge in a city of western Ontario learned by heart the first book of Homer's *Iliad*, so frequently had portions of it been assigned to him as an imposition in punishment for boyish pranks. But against the isolated cases of persons for whom the music of the lines had a charm which "out of evil brought forth good," there are scores of other instances where the writing of lines has created a dislike for beautiful poems which some inconsiderate teacher had set as an imposition. Further, it wastes time which could be profitably employed in the preparation of regular school work. Of course, this penalty may be made a salutary reminder of the pupil's carelessness, and a means of improvement, if the tasks take the form of re-writing work that has been done in a crude or slovenly manner; as, in re-writing a composition, solving in neater form a problem in arithmetic, or practising the correct spelling of mispelled words.

Marks for bad conduct which are subsequently recorded on reports to parents may produce good results, if the parents have a proper view of their relation to the school. They should be given sparingly, however, and it is wise for the teacher to keep a record of instances when pupils have been notably neglectful of work or guilty of misconduct. These records should be strictly private, and should be kept for reference

in cases where it may be necessary to interview the parents, who frequently have the habit of demanding more proof than that furnished by a general statement. As the previous conduct of a pupil should always be taken into account in determining the punishment to be administered for misconduct, it may happen that pupils who have committed the same kind of offence may receive different degrees of punishment. The prudent teacher will, therefore, have such records to refer to in justification of his discipline.

EXTREME PENALTIES

Corporal punishment and suspension are the extreme penalties that lie within the power of the teacher to inflict, and they should not be employed except in cases of extreme necessity. Suspension is of doubtful utility for younger children; it would be better to administer corporal punishment, judiciously, of course, if all other means and penalties have proved unavailing. Offences that seem to require these penalties frequently arise from some fault in management, and the infliction of the penalties may be a proof of the teacher's weakness. This is not always the case, however.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

What about corporal punishment; is it a logical penalty for school offences? Certainly, not for all; but for some offences it is quite as logical as a fine of fifty dollars for assault or a year's imprisonment for theft. It would be a more natural and logical penalty to make it possible for the assaulted person to retaliate upon his assailant in double measure, or to oblige the thief to act the part of Zaccheus in making restitution. But such methods of satisfying the ends of justice are

not generally approved. In fact, the illogical devices employed to make the punishment fit the crime serve to illustrate the limitations of human wisdom. It remains, then, for those who would put a ban upon the use of corporal punishment in the school to suggest alternatives in cases where milder treatment has failed to produce the desired result. Even if the infliction of this penalty should fail to inspire motives impelling the incorrigible boy to a course of good conduct, it will at any rate impress upon him that there are immediate as well as remote penalties for bad conduct.

With reference to corporal punishment, Dr. G. Stanley Hall remarks: "Dermal pain is far from being the pitiful evil the sentimental and neurasthenic adults regard it, and to flog wisely should not become a lost art, whether with criminals or in normal families, although, of course, other very different influences should supplement it." The last injunction should be faithfully observed, because the pain of the punishment does not in itself effect reform. It may, however, bring the offender into an attitude in which he is susceptible to reforming influences. If it does this better than any other means, corporal punishment is justifiable; but a wise teacher can generally find other means just as effective.

Young teachers especially should not use corporal punishment, except as a last resort. It should not be used without discrimination; the disposition and physical condition of the child should be considered. Sometimes the end may be attained by the pupil's exhibiting a willingness to undergo the punishment. It should not be administered in the presence of the class, but the class should be made aware of it; and the teacher should depend more upon the sense of disgrace felt by the pupil than upon the actual pain inflicted.

In the case of corporal punishment, as, indeed, in all school penalties, the administration of discipline must not be fitful or capricious—depending upon the condition of the teacher's mind or body. If the pupil is aware that certain offences are likely to be followed by certain punishments, he will have no sense of injustice as a result of the discipline, and he will not harbour resentment.

In administering punishments, and especially corporal punishment, the teacher must bear in mind two things: first, that they must never be administered in anger, and secondly, that their frequency will be in proportion to the weakness of his management of the school.

SUSPENSION

Offences against the law and order of the school have sometimes been corrected, if not positively cured, by allowing an option between suspension and corporal punishment; and to the credit of the Canadian boy it must be said that when, for any proved offence, he is confronted by these alternatives, almost invariably he has been manly enough to accept the latter rather than have his parents distressed by a knowledge of his delinquencies. Of course, this alternative can be offered only to pupils who are mature enough to exercise the power of choosing, and they should be made to understand that, if the offence should occur again, the penalty of suspension must be accepted without the privilege of an option.

In case of the suspension of a pupil, the penalty is, of course, removed when the pupil, or pupil and parent, comply with the conditions necessary to have him restored to good standing in the school. Suspension

which is made continuous becomes *expulsion*, a penalty which it is not within the power of the teacher to inflict. One of the duties of trustees, as prescribed by the Regulations of the Department of Education, is: "To expel from the school a pupil who is adjudged by the board and the teacher to be so refractory that his presence in the school is injurious to the other pupils."

Each class of conduct has its own peculiar consequences. In the case of offences already enumerated, those against one's self result in injury to health and in degradation in the sight of others; but few individuals ever associate the evil effects with the actions that cause them, and thus seldom decide to take the initiative in reform. The evil effects may be manifest to the observer but not to the offender. Except for acts that cause only temporary suffering, the duty of the teacher is to make the child conscious of the inevitable evil effects of a certain course of action before they have been experienced, in order that they may be avoided entirely. Any penalty applied should aid in arousing this consciousness. The temporary suffering which results from minor offences may be used as warnings of more serious results to follow major offences. But in children up to the age of ten or twelve, some other appeal must be made. Usually such an appeal will take the form of the penalties already discussed. In the case of impulsive children, it is necessary that the penalties, in order to be effective, should be promptly applied. The effect must be to check the impulsive action, and thus prepare for the reception of reforming influences.

NATURAL CONSEQUENCES

The natural consequences of offences against others are quite different from those just discussed. If any

physical injury to the offender results, it is by way of reaction from the offended person, as, for example, when the party whose property is injured makes an attack upon the person of the offender. This may be quite natural, but it is a secondary consequence. The primary consequence is a disturbance of the relationship previously existing between the two parties—a quite unavoidable consequence, if the action is interpreted as an offence. The restoration of this friendly relationship is the real restitution to be made. Repair of damages is the first step in the restoration of friendly relationship. A sincere apology may be another step. The teacher must not ask the offender to make an apology, but must get him to see what is properly due the person who is wronged; forced apologies are always fruitless. The real restoration of a friendly relationship can be accomplished only by a change of conduct on the part of the offender and, if possible, by active co-operation in the accomplishment of a common end.

The natural consequences of the violation of the civil law are apt to be obscured by the present conventional impositions of fines and imprisonment. If the practice of primitive tribes is investigated, it is found that the natural consequence of violating law was to become an outlaw. The offender acted in violation of the law and, therefore, placed himself without the law. He was cast out of the tribe and from the protection of its law. His own act announced his penalty; a judge and jury were needed only to decide his guilt. Children often act on this primitive basis in dealing with offenders in their games. They cast the offender out of the group engaged in the game. Further punishment is devised if he refuses to stay out.

According to present standards, such primitive justice is too wasteful. Civilized society endeavours to prevent its members from becoming "outcast," and if they do become so, an effort is made to restore them. The school is the organization which is intrusted with the important duty of socializing the individual and thus of preventing offences against society. It is important that the teacher should realize this function of the school, which has been so often stated in this Manual. The function of the law courts is to protect society from the law-breaker and, if necessary, to punish him, rather than to reform him. Hence, it is important that children should not be brought before the courts of law. In the school every effort should be made, however, to impress upon the criminally inclined the fact that his offence does actually separate him from his group. The offender will be readily reinstated when justice has been satisfied. Reinstatement can be effected only by the offender promising to obey the law and demonstrating by his action that his promise is sincere.

When a child has been brought to understand that offences against himself cause him some loss of his present comforts or advantages, that offences against others cause the separation of himself from those offended, and that offences against the laws of a society separate him from that society, it should be easier for him to understand that an offence against a standard of right results primarily in a separation between himself and right. He becomes unrighteous whether his offence is known to others or not. What others may do when they discover his offence is quite secondary. In order to align himself with what is right, he must determine to obey the law of right in future.

SUMMARY OF NATURAL CONSEQUENCES

From these considerations it becomes evident, as already stated, that the four classes of offences represent a scale increasing in seriousness. In offences of the first class, only one individual suffers to any great extent. In those of the second class, at least one other suffers along with the offender. In those of the third class, the whole social organization is affected, the offender included; while in offences of the fourth class, the fundamental principles of society are violated.

The natural consequences of the four classes of offences may be summed up as follows:

1. Class of offence: Faults
   Primary consequences:
   (*a*) Injury to health and to happiness
   (*b*) Impaired efficiency of offender
   Secondary consequences:
   (*a*) Aversion of others for the offender
   (*b*) Loss to society from decreased efficiency of the faulty individual
   Reinstatement secured:
   By obeying the laws of health in future

2. Class of offence: Misdemeanours
   Primary consequences:
   (*a*) Destruction of property or injury to person
   (*b*) Rupture of friendly relationship
   Secondary consequences:
   (*a*) Anger of offended party
   (*b*) Bodily attack on offender
   (*c*) Disturbance of society
   Reinstatement secured:
   By making restitution for any loss sustained; by promising not to offend further; by

co-operation with the offended party in the accomplishment of a common end

3. Class of offence: Crimes
   Primary consequence:
   Separation from the society whose laws are violated
   Secondary consequences:
   (*a*) Lessened respect for law and for society
   (*b*) Fine, imprisonment, etc.
   Reinstatement secured:
   By obeying the laws of society and by faithful social service
4. Class of offence: Sins
   Primary consequences:
   Separation from the state of righteousness or rightmindedness and from the society of rightminded people
   Secondary consequences:
   (*a*) Weakening of the force of right and of righteous societies
   (*b*) Lessened respect for righteousness by the sinner
   (*c*) Punishment inflicted by the courts of law
   Reinstatement secured:
   By acting righteously and by sincere self-sacrifice

TREATMENT OF OFFENCES AGAINST ONE'S SELF

The general treatment of each class of offence may now be considered. For offences against one's self, which have relation to health, the teacher should explain clearly the harm resulting therefrom, insist upon improvement in practice, and direct this practice until a new habit is formed.

CLEANLINESS, TIDINESS

If a pupil is unclean and untidy, the teacher should make clear the danger of uncleanliness in its effect upon health, and emphasize the value of tidiness in securing the good opinion of others. In such matters the teacher should, of course, set an example worthy of imitation. If the pupil fails to respond to these influences, he should be made to comply with the standard required. This implies the presence in the school of soap, water, washbasins, towels, whisks, and brushes. The teacher should require that everybody should come to school clean and tidy, and insist upon this requirement being carried out. He should also explain the necessary hygienic facts and principles upon which this requirement is based. In a few weeks the habit of cleanliness and tidiness should be established and, thereafter, only an occasional reminder will be necessary.

SMOKING

In the case of a boy who smokes, the first step is to try to convince him of its injurious effects. As long as boys look upon smoking as a manly habit, punishing them will not deter them from smoking. Taking a whipping like a man may be just as satisfying to the boy as smoking. The recent discovery that spraying the mouth and throat with a weak solution of silver nitrate is a cure for smoking, is having a good influence in leading boys to abhor the practice, because it is now branded as a disease that is cured only by medical treatment.

Boys who think it is manly to smoke, to use intoxicating liquors, or to perform any other harmful act, need to be taught that the real test of manhood is to take care of one's self wisely, that is, to preserve health,

to succeed in work and, in general, to overcome temptation instead of yielding to it. Not to do these harmful acts indicates the possession of much greater will power than to do them, just as not to contract a disease indicates greater care of one's health, or greater powers of resistance to disease, than to try to cure it after it has been contracted.

An immediate benefit accruing to the boy who refuses to smoke will help in overcoming the desire to do so. It has been found that boys will abstain from smoking in order to qualify for admission to a boys' organization. It is always possible to form some kind of club for boys in which abstention from smoking, swearing, using intoxicating liquors, etc., should be made a condition of membership. The rules of the club should provide for expulsion for violation of these conditions.

For offences that impair one's efficiency, such as inaccuracy, indifference, neglect of work, and reading trashy books, the first step is to cultivate a proper class spirit and to make the work of the school so interesting that pupils will have no inclination to be indifferent or neglectful.

READING MATTER

In the case of reading trashy books, it is not enough to advise against the practice. Such advice is of no value unless a supply of good literature is available, and unless the teacher employs every possible means to cultivate in his pupils a taste for good literature. This can be done only by a teacher who himself has such a taste. Children should be encouraged to seek the advice of their elders regarding what books to read. If children felt that their teachers and parents were anxious to provide them with interesting reading matter, they

would readily seek their advice. Too often, the injurious book is removed, sometimes forcibly, without substituting a suitable one.

The reading of children should be controlled by teachers or parents, and directed in such a way as to supplement the regular work of the school. For example, if the Pacific Ocean is being studied, the teacher may recommend the pupils to read *Vikings of the Pacific*, by Agnes C. Laut. It is, therefore, incumbent upon the teacher to have at hand a list of books suitable for pupils of different ages. The ideal situation is to have the books in the school library, so that they may be placed in the children's hands while their interest is aroused in the subject.

The Course of Study should be handled in a way that will arouse in the pupils a desire to read. The subject of art should lead them to read about great artists and painters; nature study should interest them in the best books on this subject; so with literature, history, or any other subjects in which the pupils become interested. The selections in the school readers should stimulate them to read more by the same authors. In no way can all the members of the school society co-operate better than in providing a well arranged course of reading for the pupils.

INACCURACY

It is generally recognized and frequently asserted that the pupils of our schools are strikingly deficient in manners and in accuracy. The one represents our attitude towards our fellow-men; the other our attitude towards our work; and both are admittedly important. The former has not been given the serious consideration in our schools that it deserves, and lack of politeness

is not, therefore, surprising. To the latter, however, much attention has been given, and failure to secure it can only be attributed to inefficient methods.

To remedy inaccuracy, the teacher, in the first place, should not hurry through work for the mere sake of covering the prescribed course. This is often done in the interests of pupils who are preparing for an examination. If the work in the class throughout the year were to count for as much as the final examination, there would not be the same necessity for hurrying over the work.

Secondly, the teacher should insist upon accurate work and, if he persistently does this, and refuses to accept work that is not as accurate as it should be, there will be improvement in accuracy from day to day, which will show itself in all subjects of study.

Thirdly, the rewards of accuracy and the losses due to inaccuracy should be made apparent; that is, the pupils should feel the need of accuracy. It is difficult to secure results in a positive way except in such subjects as constructive work, household science, art, and nature study. In other subjects teachers generally resort to artificial rewards for accuracy and to penalties for inaccuracy, or appeal to such instinctive tendencies as rivalry, love of approbation, and desire for good standing.

Fourthly, the child should be kept in good health and free from fatigue. It has been proved by repeated tests that work is not only slower, but is also more inaccurate, when a child is ill or fatigued. One of the great advantages claimed for open-air school rooms is the improved accuracy of the work done in such rooms.

Fifthly, pupils should be trained to verify their results. For example, in addition, the habit of adding

both up and down the column and, in pronunciation, the habit of consulting a dictionary, should be formed. In applying rules the results obtained should be verified; thus, in joining "ing" to begin, omit, etc., a pupil should verify his spelling by referring to a dictionary.

TREATMENT OF OFFENCES AGAINST OTHERS

For offences against others the procedure should be to explain clearly the rights of others, to show the necessity for social interdependence, emphasizing the duty of the strong to help the weak, and to insist upon retraction or restitution. Of course, the success of these measures must depend upon the existence of a good school spirit. Class committees have, in many instances, proved very effective in dealing with this class of offences. For instance, a Chinese boy in a certain school had his life made miserable by the bullying of another boy. The matter was referred to the class committee and, after investigation, the committee reported that the assailant had apologized and promised to behave himself in future, and that, in the opinion of the committee, the offender had been sufficiently punished for his offence. The principal never knew the name of the offender, or the kind of punishment meted out to him; but the annoyance ceased.

There are some offences of this class which are of sufficient importance to be dealt with separately.

TATTLING

Very young children are apt to run to the teacher to report trivial occurrences in the halls or on the grounds. Usually this is done in order to "get even" with another pupil, or to humiliate that pupil, and thereby gain some personal advantage. Or again, it may be a habit acquired at home. In order to suppress

this objectionable practice, the teacher should condemn the action and ignore the information given.

At the same time, the class should be told that it is only right that the teacher should be informed whenever serious offences are committed on the school grounds in the absence of the teacher. Pupils can be trained to report impulsive and accidental actions themselves, but the teacher cannot expect a pupil who secretly and wilfully performs an evil action to make confession, because the two impulses are diametrically opposed to each other. A child who steals is not going to confess, unless he is convinced that there is irrefutable evidence against him. If, therefore, another pupil knows that his companion is stealing, is it not his duty to do something to check his criminal career? Reporting to the teacher would seem to be the logical way of proceeding to do this. But most pupils refrain from doing so, because they do not want to be disloyal to a comrade. It is, therefore, the teacher's duty to impress upon his pupils that one who tries to show loyalty in this way is really not loyal to the injured party, to the teacher, or to the school. He must choose between mistaken loyalty and true loyalty. Further, it is not kind to allow a wrongdoer to persist in his actions; hence, some effectual means of checking wrong-doing must be taken. Moreover, he who knows wrong-doing is being done without trying to stop it becomes a party to the offence. All this means that a good school spirit must be cultivated, so that the informer would prefer to offend the individual rather than the group. Any one who maintains the position that no pupil should be required to inform upon a fellow pupil who is doing wrong must class himself with those who are opposed to setting up higher standards of conduct in the school. Even

Judge Lindsey, of Denver, who recognizes the average boy's dislike to "tattling," resorts to the practice of getting information from others when the offender openly refuses to be "square."

COPYING

The first step towards the prevention of copying in school is to emphasize the value of the work from day to day in securing standing, and thus to make the examination results secondary. Examinations, however, are necessary, and pupils should be thoroughly impressed with the necessity of absolute honesty while writing upon them, as it is important and necessary that the teacher should know his pupils' correct standing. The matter should be placed fairly before the pupils, and they should be asked if it is right to copy, and to agree to act honestly in all examinations. When the class has so agreed, an offence by any pupil means that the offender has lost membership in it, until he is reinstated by the class. If reinstated, an apology must be forthcoming, and the examination rewritten. Although it may be possible to prevent copying by strict supervision, real honesty in conducting examinations is not ensured thereby. It is only when the pupils are honest from choice that honest character is developed.

As play is intensely interesting and always includes a group which must work harmoniously, the natural penalty for cheating is to be expelled from the game. The expulsion must be done by the players. When a new game is commenced, the offender should be admitted, if he promises to play honestly.

QUARRELLING

Quarrelling is a very common offence among school boys, and frequently arises out of real or fancied unfair-

ness in games. The ill feeling engendered is sometimes continued in the class room, and becomes a cause of disorder. A good way to deal with boys who cherish the "I'll do it for all you" spirit is to make fun of their "dangerous" belligerency and turn the laugh of their fellows against them. Not infrequently the bad feeling continues until it ends in a fight which, if it serves to clear the air, is certainly an improvement on constant bickering.

Fighting, in itself, may not be objectionable, provided it does not take the form of acting the bully towards the smaller boy; but the teacher should aim to turn this tendency in directions that will benefit the social group, that is, in defence of the weak, and against all that is not right. The form of vigour which the pugnacious boy exhibits may be profitably utilized in manual training and gardening, and similar useful activities.

Good school games afford the best means of directing the fighting tendencies into legitimate channels. A game is a fight with all the objectionable features removed. Among the many valuable features of games, this one of providing an outlet for the fighting tendency should never be forgotten. For older pupils debates and spelling matches have the same value in this respect that games have, and the joy of success in these contests is a sufficient reward. To give a boy a position of responsibility may also divert into legitimate channels the vigour that finds an outlet in fighting.

One teacher of wide experience who was made principal of a large city school in which fighting was not uncommon, stopped it completely by telling the boys that they could fight if they wished to do so, on condition that a place and date were arranged, and the parents notified of the impending contest. Only two boys ever went so far as to attend to these prelim-

inaries. Before the hour arrived, however, they had found another way of settling their dispute. Pupils who act the part of the bully, and persist in hurting or annoying others in spite of restraining conditions, should be disciplined, and a natural penalty for persistence in the offence is corporal punishment, which is giving the fighter a dose of his own medicine, leading him to realize that if he will inflict pain upon others he must accept the infliction of pain. If this does not avail, suspension must follow, the necessity for which should seldom occur.

INTERRUPTIONS

Interruptions to work in class may be so many and of so varied a character that only a few of the more general ones can be referred to here. They are offences against pupils in so far as they interfere with the work of the class, but they are primarily offences against the teacher, as they denote disrespect, even though they may not always be so intended.

One of the striking differences in class rooms is the various degrees of quietness with which a class works. In one teacher's room, pupils work and move about with little noise, while in another there seems to be continual noise and confusion—shuffling of feet, scraping of pencils, etc. There are two kinds of quietness, that of quiet activity, and that of the absence of activity. The former is the kind that secures development; the latter arrests development.

The first factor in securing quietness is a teacher who is himself quiet in voice and movement, and in his whole bearing and manner. The teacher should encourage quietness in the pupil's activities by commending that which has been done quietly and con-

demning noisy action. Each special activity needs special practice or drill with a view to reducing the noise to a minimum. Taking books and slates from the desks, standing, and moving to and from class, may all be done quietly if a definite plan of doing each is adopted and faithfully practised. An unnecessarily noisy act should never be passed over. Occasionally a word of condemnation will suffice, but the teacher should require the act to be repeated if it has not been quietly performed.

There is no more certain sign of weakness in class management than that shown by the throwing of pellets when the teacher's back is turned, or when he is absent from the room. Pupils who are interested in their work and have enough of it to do will not be tempted to waste time in this senseless way. The first means of prevention, therefore, is to keep every pupil interested and busy all the time. If discovered in throwing pellets of any kind, the pupil should be made to sweep the whole class room after school, in order that there should be no possibility of missing those which he has thrown. It is not likely that any pupil, with such punishment pending, will offend more than once.

CLASS RESPONSIBILITY

But it is frequently impossible to discover the culprit and, without loss of time in pursuing an investigation that generally proves fruitless, the teacher may hold the class responsible for the condition of the room, and devise some means of discipline, by depriving the pupils of some privilege that has been accorded them, until there is a promise of a different attitude towards such offences. Class committees in this and in many similar cases have been found extremely useful, both in

preventing disorder and in developing a right spirit of self-govenment in the school.

COMMUNICATION BETWEEN PUPILS

Any communication between pupils during a recitation, except as part of the plan of the recitation, is never allowable, on the ground that it interferes with the work or rights of others and, further, that, as the teacher or some pupil "has the floor," it is a breach of good manners. Between recitations pupils should be permitted to relax, with the privilege of holding quiet conversation; but the degree of liberty that the teacher allows in this and all other cases must be measured by his power to control at will. He is like the driver of a team of spirited horses, who can give them the rein in proportion to his skill in management and to a well-grounded confidence in his reserve power to control them before they get out of hand.

After such a period of relaxation, during which the pupils have taken care to provide themselves with the necessary supplies, and to make other needed preparations, they should be required to resume work promptly, and to apply themselves with renewed vigour. Other methods of communication, such as making signs or passing notes, must be regarded as breaches of discipline and treated accordingly.

IMPERTINENCE

Impertinence in the school-room is frequently traceable to the influence of a home where the different members of the family are allowed to be discourteous to one another, or where remarks are heard derogatory to the teacher. Sometimes the child has, unfortunately, a brusque or forward manner, which may be mistaken

for wilful impertinence. Children who exhibit any phases of this fault, whether voluntary or otherwise, should be talked to privately; and, in the first stages, at any rate, it is well to assume that the offence arises from thoughtlessness, rather than from any intention to offend. As impertinent pupils are usually found among the older ones, they may be cured of this fault by enlisting their co-operation in securing a respectful attitude from the younger pupils. The teacher should know that any striking manifestation of impertinence is probably due to some weakness in himself.

REBELLION

It is seldom that opposition to a teacher culminates in open rebellion against his authority. When this happens, it is generally due to some defect in his management of the school, or to some outside influence that is hostile to him, and indifferent to the interests of the pupils. There can be no compromise in such a case; the pupil must submit, and promise obedience for the future, or the teacher must resign. The latter alternative must be accepted, if the trustees do not uphold the teacher. If the pupil yields, the teacher must avoid making further reference to the incident, and never allow it to influence him in the slightest degree in his future treatment of the pupil; and all sullenness or other signs of defeat shown by the pupil will soon pass away.

TARDINESS

When the first case of tardiness occurs, the matter should be discussed with the pupils. The teacher may suggest that those who come late should make up the time in some way, at the same time pointing out that the personal loss of time is only a small part of the

result of the offence, as the whole school is disturbed when the late comer enters. This loss to the class cannot be made up unless all remain after the regular hour of closing. The late comer must, therefore, cease offending if he wishes to keep on a friendly footing with the class. The teacher should himself set a good example by being at school well within the specified legal time and secure the co-operation of the parents by personal consultation if possible. He should make the first lessons of the day specially interesting, commend all who are early for the first few days, and greet the pupils with a cheery "Good morning, boys and girls."

Since many cases of lateness are due entirely to the carelessness of the parents, it is well to require a written explanation from them whenever the child is late, and to include a record of all instances of lateness in the monthly or bi-monthly reports. The debit and credit marks account mentioned elsewhere could be used in connection with this and many other offences. For one case of lateness, without proper excuse, there might be given a debit of five marks, while being early for, say, two weeks, might give a credit of five, thus cancelling the one lateness.

Parents' excuses for the lateness of their children should be brought at the time the lateness occurs; otherwise they are of little or no use, for too many parents can readily be induced to accept a child's excuse for loitering by the way. But there may be unavoidable causes for delay, even when the pupils leave home in good time. Pupils who are late, without a proper written excuse from home, might, therefore, be allowed to bring to the teacher at recess a statement of the cause of lateness, written by himself, which would be accepted, if found satisfactory, and kept for reference, if necessary.

A natural penalty for pupils who are late without proper excuse is to detain them at the end of the day. Another plan that has worked well is to have them present themselves at 8.45 for one or more days, or until they acknowledge that the offence is cured.

In cases of chronic lateness the parents should be notified and, if the offence does not cease, it may be necessary, in the interests of the other pupils, to suspend the delinquent pupil in order to bring home to the parent the necessity of treating the school as any business concern would be treated.

IRREGULARITY OF ATTENDANCE

Parents are chiefly to blame for irregularity of attendance. They should be impressed with the importance of regular attendance and their co-operation secured. In these days of the rural telephone, the teacher can do much in this matter by making use of it. A station near the school which could be used by the teacher would be an economical arrangement. If a telephone were located in the teacher's private room or right in the school-room, it could be silenced during school hours and then released when wanted.

A spirit of rivalry may be aroused by commending the most regular. The teacher should inquire for all absentees, and explain how the absence of one interferes with all. Certificates for regular attendance cost little, and are legitimate incentives which can be used without a risk of unfairness being charged. It is, of course, often true that the pupil who attends only eighty per cent. of the year deserves more credit than one who has attended every day but, on the whole, this fact is not of sufficient importance to constitute a serious objection to the use of such certificates. The

monthly or bi-monthly reports to parents should include a statement of the number of half-days absent. The statement of lateness and absence would often be a surprise to parents who are not aware how quickly "a day now and then" counts up.

TRUANCY

There is a great difference between staying away from school half a day or a day without sufficient reason and persistent truancy. The former can be remedied by requiring lost time to be made up, and by securing a promise of not offending in this way again. But the real truant is not so easily reformed. The teacher should try, in the first place, to learn the cause of the truancy, and to provide a countervailing interest, either in the school work, or in one or other of the activities connected with the school. Interest in the work of the school is an effective remedy. Sometimes this begins by interest in the teacher, or in games, or in some special subject. One case has been cited in this Manual which was cured by interest in art.

If none of these positive influences have any avail, what must be done? Cases of truancy have been cured by allowing an option between suspension and corporal punishment. If the teacher's and parents' interest and co-operation cannot accomplish reform, recourse must be had to The Truancy Act, unless the pupil is old enough to be allowed to enter upon some line of work that is more congenial than the studies of the school-room.

The Regulations of the Department of Education provide that: "The Principal of a rural school shall, subject to instructions from the Minister, send to the Inspector a statement of the names and addresses of all pupils between the ages of eight and fourteen inclusive,

who have been irregular in attendance, and of all children in the section between the same ages who have not been in attendance." All such pupils are then dealt with under the provisions of The Truancy Act.

OFFENCES AGAINST THE COMMUNITY

Offences against the community can be dealt with by the teacher only so far as they are brought within his purview through being committed by pupils while on the school premises, or on the way to or from school.

DEFACING PROPERTY

The most common of these offences with which the teacher has to deal is that of marking school desks and walls. Sometimes the former is done mechanically while the pupil is sitting at his desk, but most of the defacing of walls is done wilfully.

It was suggested as part of the duties of the teacher on the first day at school that a thorough examination of the school building and furniture should be made, and the results recorded for future reference. This is very important, as there are sure to be some marks left from the preceding term unless the seats are quite new. The examination should include the closets and the exterior of the school building. The remarks of the teacher on the opening day should emphasize the responsibility of the pupils in caring for the school property as their own property. The caretaker of the school should be instructed to remove all defacements which the teacher found in his inspection. The removal of all signs of previous defacing before the opening day lessens temptation to further defacing, and the pupils should be urged to keep the school in the condition in which it is found by them. Daily examinations should be made by the teacher throughout the term.

Constant watchfulness, however, is not sufficient. A real respect for property must be developed in the pupils. This can be done by requiring the pupils to make things that are useful to them. Indeed, this is one of the chief values of constructive work in the school. For the same reason children who make gardens usually refrain from destroying public flower plots. If the pupils deface or destroy property, the logical penalty is to restore it or to pay the cost of restoring it.

In committing offences against the laws of the land, the offender puts himself within the power of the law; but, if possible, children's offences should never be dealt with in the ordinary law courts. The establishment of children's courts is a recognition of this view. In the school, these offences should be regarded as misdemeanours, and be dealt with accordingly. The same is true of offences against standards of right. The treatment of some of the more common of these offences is worthy of consideration.

OFFENCES AGAINST STANDARDS OF RIGHT

LYING

Any one who lies should be made to feel that lying is a cowardly act, and that a lie is like a weak link which makes the whole chain weak; so a whole school is morally weakened because one boy in it lies. The object of such a presentation of the case is to show the offender that he has separated himself from all truthful members of society, and that to reinstate himself he must correct the wrong done, and decide to observe the law of truth in future.

If a boy denies having broken a pane of glass and is eventually discovered, he must restore his standing in the school society by paying the cost of the glass, making amends to the class, declaring that it will be

treated fairly by him in future, and promising to be truthful henceforth. In securing these steps the teacher should emphasize the point that the offence is not against the teacher, but against the whole school; in fact, against the law of truth in general, the breaking of which, however, concerns the school more particularly. If the class has a low standard of truthfulness, this profession of repentance will not amount to much. There are classes, which, owing to bad management, would accept a liar but reject a repentant one who would acknowledge his fault. The right class spirit is, therefore, of vital importance.

GAMBLING

There is deplorable evidence that the practice of gambling is increasing among both young and old. It is defined as follows: "To play a game, especially a game of chance, for stakes; to risk money or other possession on an event, chance, or contingency; to pretend to buy or sell, depending for gain upon chance variations in prices."

In our public schools the game that comes within these definitions is playing marbles "for keeps," and the teacher should consider what attitude to adopt towards the gambling element in this game. Too many teachers entirely ignore the fact that pupils who play this game are actually gambling, and fathers who have escaped any evil effects of a similar practice in their youth are apt to regard the offence lightly. It is, however, too serious a menace to future honesty to be treated lightly.

The first objection to playing marbles "for keeps" is that it is for selfish ends. The same spirit animates the players that animated the members of ancient tribes when they tried to seize the property of other tribes. To say that the same spirit is prevalent in the

commercial world to-day does not justify us in making no effort to destroy it. The child should be shown that in this game one player's gain means another player's loss; that on such a basis society cannot advance at all, since gain and loss balance each other; and that the loss is really greater than the gain, since that which might have been gained by co-operation is lost. This may be shown in a concrete way by comparing two neighbours who own property. If one were to take the property the other owned, who in turn might recover some or all of that taken and sometimes more, the quantity of property held by both could not increase, and each would be neglecting his own property while trying to secure that of the other. If now each would not only look after his own property but help the other in time of need, both would eventually be better off.

There are so many good games that do not depend upon gain for their interest that it is quite unnecessary to play those that do. If a game is not interesting enough in itself to hold the players, it is not worth playing. Think of offering rewards to children to induce them to use swings, giant strides, or toboggan slides. The sheer joy of the game itself is sufficient incentive for playing it. When this ceases to be felt, it is time to change the game.

RESPECT FOR PROPERTY RIGHTS

Few people in this country refrain from helping themselves to apples and other fruit if the trees are near the road, and few owners object to the occasional visits of travellers who take only what they want to eat on their journey. In cities, fruit trees are openly visited by school boys passing to and from school. Under such circumstances, is it strange that property of other kinds is not regarded as private; that boys

frequently take fruit from baskets set out in front of stores; that shop-keepers are constantly worried by the common practice of "shop-lifting"; that the public is looked upon by ambitious money-makers as legitimate prey, if their schemes are cleverly planned to deceive? Indeed there is need of careful instruction in our schools on the subjects of property rights and respect for the property of others. This is the first step in dealing with the prevention of stealing by the pupils of the school.

Judge Lindsey, the famous judge of the Children's Court in Denver, has a simple way of dealing with all boys and girls who have done wrong. Having obtained a confession from them (which he is very skilful in securing), and a promise to stop doing wrong, with a further promise of trying to do some good act to make up for the wrong, he places them on probation. When they have done a good act they are asked to report to him. In Judge Lindsey's experience, the seriousness of the offence does not make much difference, so far as leading the boys to reform is concerned. If boys have been stoning the police, he makes them help the policeman in keeping order thereafter. If they have stolen anything, they must not only pay for it, but also be honest in future and try to help others to be honest. Now, if Judge Lindsey can be successful in reforming bad boys by this simple method, why is it not possible to prevent wrong-doing by enlisting their co-operation against wrong-doers, and in defence of what is right? In a western Ontario city a few years ago extensive decorations were to be put up for a week. Many citizens said that they would be pulled down by the boys. The principals of the schools visited each room in the city just before the decorations were put up and asked for the co-operation of the pupils in protecting these decorations. Whether this was the cause or not, the

fact was that practically not a single decoration was disturbed. The children felt that the decorations were under their care, and they were not going to be false to their trust by destroying any of them.

It is not surprising that children who have never really owned anything nor have been held responsible for the care of property should be careless about their own and other's property. They may have learned the commandment, "Thou shalt not steal," but in all probability they interpret stealing as only taking money. The interpretation of the command needs to be broadened to include not only money and valuable property, but also property of little value. There is no doubt that the conscientious care of everything in the home by each member of the family, and in the school by the teacher, will tend to inculcate an honest character in the child, more especially if he should be allowed the privilege of helping.

SWEARING

It is seldom that boys swear on the school grounds; yet it is not unusual to hear very young boys swearing on city streets. These boys are only imitating their elders, and in many cases scarcely realize that they are doing anything wrong. Indeed, there is a readiness on the part of many adults to view swearing as a minor offence. Under these circumstances it is all the more necessary for teachers to condemn swearing with greater emphasis. The sin of profanity is in the feeling that prompts the use of profane language. The vulgar, thoughtless swearing so common on our streets often arises from a meagre command of language. It is an effort to express one's self emphatically, when the ordinary vocabulary seems inadequate.

Pupils should be impressed with the seriousness of

the sin of swearing by showing them that it ranks with all the other sins of the Decalogue which we are commanded not to commit—lying, stealing, murder, etc. Upon their consciousness of the wrong they are committing, and upon their promise not to indulge in swearing, the teacher must depend for suppressing this inexcusable and sinful practice. A talk upon its sinfulness, and an expression of regret that the pupil has been guilty of such an offence, will have more effect than any punishment that may be inflicted. This evil practice frequently arises from the mistaken notion that it is a sign of manliness. The offence should be brought to the attention of the parents and their co-operation enlisted. If a pupil persists in the use of profane language, he must be separated from the others and, in exceptional cases, must be expelled from the school.

It is practically impossible to anticipate all the offences that may occur in school management, and it is not profitable to attempt a discussion of the treatment of all known offences. What is practically the same offence may assume such a different phase under different conditions that it is not wise to prescribe the same penalty. The same offence committed by different children, or even by the same child under different circumstances, must not be subject to the same penalty. Further, the kind of penalty that one teacher may administer with success may prove a failure when administered by another teacher.

Prescription of certain penalties for certain offences must be regarded, therefore, as suggestive, rather than as mandatory; and they must always be subject to modification to suit conditions. The success or failure of the modes of dealing with violations of order in school must, in the final analysis, depend upon the judgment and common sense of the teacher.

CHAPTER XVI

SOME PROBLEMS AND RESULTS OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

TESTS OF ATTAINMENTS

EFFICIENT teaching in a well-managed school should enlarge the pupils' knowledge. But the standard of knowledge set up is often too narrow, being limited to the accumulation and organization of facts. Not only facts, but principles must be learned. Indeed, the facts are valuable chiefly because they form the bases of principles. Then there must be skill in using facts and principles. Above all there must be power developed to make more rapid and economical progress. The great problem for the teacher from the standpoint of results is to know exactly what progress is being made in each of these ways. This requires that tests be made from time to time to measure progress in (*a*) the acquisition of facts and their meaning, (*b*) the knowledge of principles and their application to new cases, (*c*) skill in performing work, indicated by speed and accuracy, (*d*) the attainment of power to react to new situations.

TESTING KNOWLEDGE OF FACTS

Tests of this class may be given as oral or written exercises, after a definite amount of work in a subject has been completed. The class may be told that a test will be given after a specified amount of work has been covered, but the exact date of the test need not be mentioned. No injustice will be done in bringing on such a test without notice. These tests should be short. They need not exceed half an hour, and may be

limited to fifteen minutes; hence, as a rule the ordinary class period may be used for them without disturbing the regular work of the school. The questions should be set and the answers valued by the teacher of the class. The questions should be very definite, and of such a character as to be answered in a few words. In tests of this class only absolutely correct answers should be accepted, in order to encourage habits of accuracy.

TESTING KNOWLEDGE OF PRINCIPLES

The only satisfactory way of testing a pupil's knowledge of a principle is to ask him to apply it to a given case. Merely stating the principle may indicate no knowledge of it whatever. When a definite course of principles is outlined, an outside examiner can set a perfectly fair paper to test the candidate's knowledge of these principles. The danger is that the examiner will devise involved problems, the aim of which is to test the pupil's reasoning power. The result is usually disastrous to the candidate and disappointing to the examiner.

When the teacher desires to test the pupils' knowledge of principles, he should see that the purely mechanical work required does not offer any serious difficulty, so that the answers will really indicate knowledge of principles. For example, if the teacher wishes to test his pupils' knowledge of how to find commission, the sum given and the rate should be related so that the mechanical work would not likely be incorrect. Thus the problem of finding the commission on $800, when the rate is $1\frac{1}{8}$ per cent., will test the knowledge of the principle as well as finding the commission on $796.32 at $1\frac{3}{5}$ per cent. would. If the teacher wants to know

if his pupils can multiply \$796.32 by $1\frac{3}{5}$ accurately, he should give the problem as a straight mechanical test.

Each principle tested should be valued the same, and if the principle is incorrectly applied, the pupil should receive nothing whatever for his attempt. Some teachers are inclined to value one form of solution more highly than another, but any method should be accepted, if it is reasonable. Indeed, a new method of solution should frequently be valued more highly, as it may be an indication of more thought than the use of a method that has already been learned and applied. Of course, accuracy of statement must be demanded as a part of the application of principles. The pupil who says that 3 ft. $\times$ 4 ft. = 12 sq. ft. is making an untrue statement and is ignoring a very important principle.

SPEED

Accuracy is more important than speed, but without speed it loses much of its value in business offices. Speed and accuracy have been emphasized, more particularly in arithmetic, but they are also necessary in other subjects of study. A standard of speed should be established in each grade. Below the Second Class, speed is not an important factor in work. More oral work should be done at this stage, and ready response should be encouraged.

Short weekly tests in speed will reduce the time of performing mechanical arithmetical operations very remarkably. The results will bear a direct proportion to the demand made upon the pupils by the teacher. An average entrance class can be trained by the end of a year to do the mechanical work in the following questions correctly, in from twenty to twenty-five minutes, without spending more than thirty minutes a day on all phases of arithmetic.

1. Add—

367895
476328
754637
598392
839254
567982
632104
523671
245362
160745

2. Subtract 46237 from 278961 as often as you can.

3. 467+38+9476—3894+9×387—6×592+9+76.

4. Multiply 3689754 by 7689.

5. Divide 32457896 by 9768.

As a rule, increase in speed will be accompanied by increase in accuracy up to a certain point.

The teacher should cultivate speed in drawing. There is no need of spending half an hour in drawing a sphere, a box, or a flower, as each of these can be drawn as well or better in fifteen minutes. Speed in silent reading is good practice, especially to any one who has to do much reading of test papers in later years. Psychologists agree that silent reading is more profitable when done rapidly. Of course, oral reading must be done with the speed that best expresses and conveys the meaning to an audience.

INITIATIVE

No examination test yet devised can test the ability of the individual to meet new situations. Candidates might be asked what they would do under certain given

conditions, but viewing these conditions from a seat in the examination room, and actually facing them, are so different that they do not call forth the same reactions at all. Every Normal School student soon learns the difference between theorizing in a Normal School class and facing forty pupils in the practice school, and the difference will become further marked when he has the pupils to teach in any ordinary public school or class. Of course, the theorizing helps the teacher, but the actual teaching requires more adjustment than is required in discussing and learning a theory. A teacher might be able to prepare a perfect plan for a lesson and yet fail to teach the lesson with any measure of success.

This power of initiative shows itself in the class room in a desire to get at the reason of statements or operations, or in attacking new problems without asking for assistance. It shows itself on the playground in proposing and directing games. It is most apparent in art, manual training, and nature study, where material things have to be dealt with. It cannot be judged by what the pupil says, but by what he does in new situations. Power of initiative should be valued very highly, as it is a quality greatly needed in the work-a-day world.

CONDUCT OF EXAMINATIONS

While other means should be adopted to test the attainments and progress of pupils, so that it would not be necessary to subject them to the nervous strain of frequent formal examinations, it is not possible to dispense with these altogether.

It is true that many of the best results of good teaching—in literature, for example—cannot be tested by means of written examinations; but, in general, they

furnish a fair test of the pupil's attainments and, if properly conducted, they become a means of education.

The outcry against examinations is based upon sentiment rather than upon reason. No doubt there are children who cannot do themselves justice at an examination, owing to nervousness, but, in many cases, the plea of nervousness is made to serve as an excuse for ignorance of the subject. Teachers often make too much of examinations, talking of them as if they were the be-all and end-all of school work, and this helps to make children nervous about them.

If examinations are held in place of the usual lessons, as already stated, and without previous announcement—which is the better plan in elementary schools—not only will "cramming" be prevented, but also much nervousness, which is caused rather by the dread of a pending examination than by the actual writing at an examination. In some cases, it may be necessary to have the examination extend over more than one lesson period.

Written examinations have certain advantages for both teacher and pupil. For the teacher—they are an aid to the classification of the pupils; they reveal weak points in the teaching; they show where review of work is necessary; they indicate the attitude of the pupils to their work, and the progress they are making, thus forming the basis of reports to parents. For the pupil—they stimulate effort; they test his ability to summon his powers for special effort; they reveal deficiencies in his knowledge; they help him to clarify and to correlate his knowledge; they are an aid to memory; they train in the use of language—in clearness, conciseness, and precision; they train the judgment, giving him practice in choosing between essentials and non-essentials in answering the questions placed before him.

The best results of written examinations, however, cannot be obtained, unless the pupils' answer papers are faithfully examined and valued, and afterwards discussed, question by question, with the class. Some of the best answers should be read by the pupils, and the correct answers given afterwards by the teacher, who should also explain in what respect any of the answers read, or any others brought to his attention, are defective. If questions are well selected, properly graded, and clearly stated, and answers treated in the way suggested, a written examination cannot fail to produce beneficial results as an educational factor.

TESTS FOR PROMOTION

Promotion should not be determined by a final examination alone. Tests made monthly or at other stated times during the year, and the teacher's knowledge of the pupils' ability, should have at least equal value with the final examination, and these may very well decide promotion in seventy-five per cent of the cases. There is, of course, much satisfaction in proving one's ability before competent outside judges. To a certain extent the adaptation to the mode of questioning used by the outside examiner is a test of power, but there is much injustice done when standing is determined entirely by this means.

When promotion depends upon a final examination, the teacher usually spends three or four weeks in reviewing for the test. This review is usually a memory drill on facts and principles and on answers to questions found on past examination papers. This drill on facts for the purpose of securing a standing has a deadening effect upon mental growth. In fact, when the review commences, mental growth is generally neglected.

If the facts are permanently fixed in the mind and are of use in making future adjustments, they may be worth learning. But this mode of learning for such a purpose violates modern laws of pedagogy and is opposed to the aim of education.

Final examinations should deal mainly with the application of principles. Writing original compositions, reading new selections, sight work in literature, and problems in arithmetic and science, are all legitimate for final examinations. It is impossible to form an adequate opinion of a candidate's knowledge of facts and the way they are related in a two- or three-hour examination period.

Written examinations extending over several days are often the cause of excessive mental strain. It is quite as easy to judge a pupil's ability from his answers on an examination lasting one hour, or even less, as from his answers on one lasting longer. If, however, it can be proved that a two-hour paper is the shortest possible, keeping in view the best interests of the child, then there should be two periods of one hour each, with an interval of half an hour between. The short examination, however, is preferable and, when the pupils have to be examined in several subjects, the examinations should not be continued day after day without a break.

The student's fitness for higher work can be fairly judged by his daily class work and by his records on term tests. In adult society, the fitness of any individual for the position he holds or for promotion to a higher positions depends upon his efficiency in his daily work. Why should not a school be operated on a similar basis? In any event, these means should determine the student's standing in part and should be used entirely for the best pupils. The following basis for

promotion in the grades of the public school is recommended: From Primary Grade to Senior First there should be no examination; the teacher's judgment of term work is quite sufficient. No child of this age should be subjected to the strain of a written examination. For all other grades, those pupils receiving a term standing of seventy-five per cent should be promoted without any final examination. Such a reward is better than prizes and medals for high standing on final examination. Those pupils who receive a term standing of say fifty per cent on each subject and sixty-five per cent on the total should be promoted on obtaining standing on a final examination in reading, spelling, and arithmetic. Occasionally some other subject may be included. All other pupils may be given a special opportunity for promotion by writing on a final examination. The three classes of pupils may be named A, B, C.

This plan was used for several years in the public schools of one city with entire satisfaction. The teachers were, perhaps, unnecessarily strict regarding the term standing. As a rule only four or five secured Class A standing, and about twice as many Class B. From a typical report preserved, the following results are quoted:

From Senior First to Junior Second: Class A, eight pupils; Class B, ten; Class C, eighteen.

From Junior Second to Senior Second: Class A, four pupils; Class B, nine; Class C, Sixteen.

From Senior Second to Junior Third: Class A, eight pupils; Class B, seven; Class C, sixteen.

From Junior Third to Senior Third: Class A, five pupils; Class B, twenty-two; Class C, forty pupils.

Other classes showed similar results. The number

of pupils in A and B should have been larger. Any teacher who is capable, experienced, and conscientious, should be able to name at least seventy-five per cent of his pupils who would pass the promotion examination. Why, then, is it necessary to put these pupils through the strain of a written examination at the end of a long term's work in the hot month of June? It is largely a waste of time and energy for both teachers and pupils. The school should train its pupils to economize time and conserve energy, and no system of management is worthy of adoption which does not do so.

When the teacher has reported on the pupil's standing, and the final tests have been made, there are usually a number of failures. The number of these in public school classes ranges from ten to twenty per cent of the class tested. Should those who fail receive no further consideration? Many, if not all of them, are, in knowledge and mental power, more nearly equal to the class going forward than to any other class in the school. To provide for such cases, the following plan has been adopted in Indianapolis: All who fail are promoted provisionally. If, at the end of six weeks in the higher grade, they can show their ability to keep up with their class-mates, they are given their promotion; if not they are demoted. Over fifty per cent of those promoted in this provisional way have proved themselves equal to the work.

Another plan is to organize special classes during the summer vacation for those who have failed. In these classes individual instruction predominates. The pupils' time is devoted mainly to those subjects in which they are known to be weak. Whenever possible, classes are conducted in the open air in an informal way. A large proportion of the time is spent

in physical exercises and play, both free and organized. Manual training for the boys and domestic science for the girls are made prominent, when the proper equipment is available. Gardening is another important feature. It is becoming more evident that the time will come when urban schools will be open the year round, for those, at least, who wish to attend.

Still another plan that has been tried with success is that of the ungraded class, which has been described in Chapter III.

TESTS OF MENTALITY

It is contended in defence of written examinations that well prepared pupils pass the examination, and that those who take the highest marks are invariably strong in mental power. It is nevertheless true that the test of a written examination in fifteen or twenty subjects is not an entirely satisfactory method of discovering mental ability, and that injustice is frequently done in such a test. Educationists have applied themselves to discover tests that, when applied to any individual, will serve as a measure of his mental power.

A French educationist, Dr. Binet, in conjunction with Dr. Simon, spent the latter years of his life in an effort to formulate such a series of tests, which is now known as the Binet-Simon scale of mentality. In applying the test, however, it must be remembered that children of different nationalities of the same age vary considerably in mentality. For example, it is generally true that children of the Latin race are more precocious than those of the Anglo-Saxon race.

The Binet-Simon scale is described in *Mentally Defective Children* by Binet and Simon, translated by Drummond, Longmans, Green & Co., 1914. It may

prove a valuable auxiliary in determining the classification of children, but, of course, the tests of knowledge of facts and principles must still have their place.

RESULTS OF GOOD MANAGEMENT

Good organization and management, combined with good teaching, should produce good results. After a teacher has taught a class for a month or six weeks, his ability may be fairly estimated by observing the children's habits. Physical movements, such as standing, coming into class, entering and leaving school, passing books and papers, will be performed with a minimum of disturbance, and without the strict supervision of the teacher. The attention of the teacher to details of movement should not be needed after the first few weeks. Certain routine habits should be formed by that time. If these habits are lacking after a reasonable period of training, it is evidence of defective management.

Certain habits of work should also be apparent by this time. The classes should be able to carry on their work as indicated in the time-table, without detailed instructions. When the teacher is called from the room, work should not be interrupted, nor should disorder arise. The attendance should be regular and punctual. Neatness, accuracy, and speed in work should begin to manifest themselves. The older pupils should exhibit initiative in entering upon new work, and self-control in the performance of school duties. Co-operation among pupils and between teacher and pupils should be apparent. Each pupil should know his duties and attend to them without special instruction.

A still more important result of good management is shown in the conduct of the pupils. Education is of

doubtful value unless the activities of the individual are controlled by right ideas; that is, by ideas of right relationship to one's own thoughts, to one's associates, to the laws of society, and to the universal laws which are the basis of Christianity. As stated in Chapter I, an individual, to be an efficient member of society, must be able to take care of himself, must not interfere with others' rights and, above all, must actually share in the life of the community. The management of the school should give practical training in these three requirements. The success of the management will be measured by the degree to which these are accomplished. "As a result of school discipline, the pupil should be enabled, in the light of reason, to set up his own standard of action, and by habit and strength of will to bring himself under the law thus set up."

The standards of action, however, must be continually advanced. At first, the teacher will concentrate his efforts on making the child capable of caring for himself. Improvement in this respect should be marked from year to year. At the same time, the child should gradually learn that his own rights are limited by those of his associates, to which they must frequently give way. In this way a spirit of unselfish co-operation is developed as a result of successful school management. This co-operation should be apparent in the teacher's activities as well as in the activities of his pupils, and will be shown, too, by the spirit which he exhibits towards his fellow-teachers in the management of the school. The same co-operation will be shown in his relations with inspector, parents, and trustees. Only by such co-operation is the efficiency of a school maintained.

Unity of purpose, co-operation of effort, efficiency in results—these three phases are heard everywhere

to-day, in the factory, in the office, in the church, and in the school; therefore, no apology is offered for their frequent use in this Manual. They are used in order to arouse teachers to work unceasingly for the promotion of these aims in every school room in this Province, because only through unity of purpose and co-operation can efficient results be secured. Indeed, these ideas are already dominating the efforts of thousands of school teachers in this and in other lands. Even in the slum districts of our most populous cities, teachers are training the children under the guidance of these three potent ideas. An educationist who recently visited a school in a district that has been noted the world over as the home of the fallen, the outcast, and the criminal, reports that: "The school spirit appears to have a tonic effect throughout. Discipline is scarcely a question." And this school has an attendance of three thousand five hundred pupils! Another visitor to a city school reports: "The following organizations exist in that school—a school orchestra, a glee club, a colour guard, a street patrol service, and a welfare league. Each of the classes in this school is to a certain extent self-governing under an elected president, vice-president, and librarian, who, with twenty-five aides, control the school in the absence of the master."

The kind of co-operation that will secure the only results worth while is based upon the assent of the pupils under the guidance of a wise teacher who knows when and how to exercise a benevolent autocracy. Co-operation based upon compulsion is only superficial and, therefore, temporary. As soon as the compulsory force is removed, as it must be, there will be reaction in the form of uncontrolled activity. Moreover, the teacher who secures order and attention by compulsion

is as much in bondage as his pupils are; for instance, he cannot leave his class for a moment for fear of disturbance. Hence, the only kind of control worth while is self-control, since it relieves the teacher and develops the pupil. A school governed mainly by force cannot prepare for citizenship in a country governed by the popular will. Society is demanding that school government shall accord with popular government.

The teacher who develops in his pupils this power of self-control performs a service of inestimable value, since only through it can the necessary adjustments to social conditions be made. Moreover, only through self-control can self-knowledge and self-respect be developed.

> Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,
> These three alone lead life to sovereign power.

The best product of the school, therefore, is the individual who controls and directs his activities in such a way as to develop the best that is in himself and to render the highest service of humanity. Such a product is the best evidence of successful school management.

APPENDIX

Suggested Readings from Books of Reference

CHAPTER I

W. C. Bagley. . . . The Educative Process. Chap. III.
W. C. Bagley. . . . Class-room Management. Introduction, pp. 1-12.
E. E. White. . . . . School Management, pp. 9-19.
E. L. Thorndike . The Principles of Teaching. Chap. I.

CHAPTER II

Joseph Landon. . The Principles and Practices of Teaching and Class Management, pp. 208-219.

CHAPTER III

W. C. Bagley . . . The Educative Process. Chaps. XIX-XXII.
W. C. Bagley. . . . Class-room Management. Chap. XIII.
Joseph Landon . The Principles and Practices of Teaching and Class Management. Chaps. II, III, V, VI.
F. M. McMurry . The Method of the Recitation. Chaps. VI-IX.
E. L. Thorndike . The Principles of Teaching. Chap. X.

CHAPTER IV

E. A. Kirkpatrick. Fundamentals of Child Study. Chaps. I-III.
T. Raymont. . . . . The Principles of Education. Chap. V.
E. L. Thorndike . The Principles of Teaching. Chap. V.

CHAPTER V

W. C. Bagley. . . . Class-room Management. Chaps. XVI, XVII, XVIII.
T. Raymont. . . . . The Principles of Education. Chaps. XVII, XVIII.
Wm. James. . . . . Talk of Teachers. Chaps. XIII, X, XI.
E. E. White. . . . . School Management, pp. 17-48.

CHAPTER VI

Knight . . . . . The Ontario Public School Hygiene.
F. B. Dresslar . . . School Hygiene. Chaps. V, VII, XVI.
E. L. Thorndike . The Principles of Teaching. Chap. II.
E. E. White . . . . . School Management, pp. 48-102.

CHAPTER VII

W. C. Bagley . . . . Class-room Management. Chap. VI.
F. B. Dresslar . . . School Hygiene. Chap. XIX.
E. A. Kirkpatrick Fundamentals of Child Study. Chap. XVII.
E. L. Thorndike . The Principles of Teaching. Chap. XI.
E. E. White . . . . . School Management, pp. 105-129 and 218 ff.

CHAPTER VIII

F. B. Dresslar . . . School Hygiene. Chaps. III, IV, XXIV.
Ontario Department of Education . . . . . Plans for Rural School Buildings.
Improvement of School Grounds.

CHAPTER IX

W. C. Bagley . . . . School-room Management. Chap. I.
Joseph Landon . The Principles and Practices of Teaching and Class Management, pp. 166-185.

CHAPTER X

W. C. Bagley . . . . Class-room Management. Chap. II.

CHAPTER XI

W. C. Bagley . . . . Class-room Management. Chap. IV.
E. E. White . . . . . School Management, pp. 86-94.

CHAPTER XII

E. E. White . . . . . School Management, pp. 156-158 and 214.

CHAPTER XIII

W. C. Bagley . . . . Class-room Management. Chap. XI.
F. B. Dresslar . . . School Hygiene. Chap. II.
E. A. Kirkpatrick Fundamentals of Child Study. Chap. IX.
E. E. White . . . . . School Management, pp. 130-190.

CHAPTER XIV

W. C. Bagley. . . . Class-room Management. Chaps. III, IX, X.
Joseph Landon . Principles and Practices of Teaching and Class Management, pp. 185-208.

CHAPTER XV

W. C. Bagley. . . . Class-room Management. Chap. VIII.
E. E. White. . . . . School Management, pp. 190-217.

CHAPTER XVI

W. C. Bagley. . . . Class-room Management. Chap. XV.
E. L. Thorndike . Principles of Teaching. Chap. XVI.